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A TREATISE
ON
BOOKKEEPING AND STENOGRAPHY

PREPARED FOR STUDENTS OF
THE INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS
SCRANTON, PA.

Volume II

GRAMMAR
PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION
LETTER WRITING
WITH PRACTICAL QUESTIONS AND EXAMPLES

First Edition

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GRAMMAR.

(PART 1.)

INTRODUCTION.

LANGUAGE AND GRAMMAR.

1. Language in General.—In its widest sense, the word *language* includes every means by which thought or feeling may be made known. Thus, we speak of the “various language” of nature and of the language of painting, sculpture, and architecture. Everything in nature, as well as everything that bears marks of the thought and labor of man, speaks, more or less plainly, a language. The world is full of inanimate things that tell of human hope and purpose and struggle, of achievement and taste and refinement. Such thought and feeling as the lower animals are capable of, they can, more or less intelligibly, make known.

But this dumb and wordless language requires no grammatical treatment, for it makes no use of nouns and verbs, or of words and sentences. It is the language of man alone that is governed by laws, and is, therefore, capable of being reduced to a science.

There are many ways in which man may make his thought known to others; as, for example, by grimace, gesture, the signs of the deaf and dumb, symbols, pictorial writing, and pictures. But better than any or all of these are oral speech and written language. It is chiefly by this faculty of speech that man is distinguished from the lower animals, and this faculty is so far above the power of expression possessed by

brutes that many people believe human language to have been a gift of divine origin.

2. Origin of the Word "Language."—The word *language* is derived from the Latin word *lingua*, "the tongue"; and, since this is the chief organ used in speech, the word for *tongue* is employed in many languages to mean oral speech. In the early history of our race, language was spoken, but not written. With the advance of civilization came the need for some form of language more lasting than mere verbal utterance. This gave rise to the first attempts to record thought by writing. These, we are told, were at first mere symbols or rude pictures so arranged as to have a meaning more or less plain, and traces of these pictures are said to remain in the letters of our own alphabet. Thus, it is now believed that our letter A has taken its present form from the representation of an *eagle* by the ancient Egyptians, B from that of a *crane*, C from the picture of a *throne*, etc.

The term *language* denoted at first only spoken thought, but its meaning was extended as explained above. But, for grammatical science, the only kinds of language considered are spoken and written.

Definition.—*Language, as treated in grammar, is the body of uttered and written signs employed by men to express and communicate their thoughts.*

3. Living Languages.—As has been stated, written language was an outgrowth from mere speech; and each language, both spoken and written, continues to grow and to improve as long as the people using it maintain their national existence. Discovery, invention, and change of every kind are constantly bringing many things never before heard of—new articles of manufacture, new processes, new wants and tastes and arts and sciences. These require exact expression, and many new words must be devised. On the other hand, old things pass away, and the words that named them get to be useless and are no longer employed; that is, they become *obsolete*. So rapid is this process of change that our own tongue as it was written a thousand years ago is

as difficult to us now as the Greek, the Latin, or the German. Letters have taken on new forms, words have changed both in their form and their meaning or have passed entirely out of use, and the spelling and pronunciation of those that remain are now very different from what they were some hundreds of years ago.

A language, while it is in its actual use and is undergoing these additions, losses, and changes, is said to be a *living* language.

4. Dead Languages.—It has often happened in the history of the world that entire peoples have lost their country by attack from without. In such events, they have sometimes been driven out by the invaders, reduced to slavery, and gradually destroyed; or, deprived of their political powers and rights, they have been permitted to remain in their country, and by a slow process of absorption, have merged their identity as a people into that of their conquerors. Many examples of such national catastrophes will occur to the student. The Roman Empire was destroyed in this way by the barbarian ancestors of the people that now inhabit Northern Europe. The Latin language was soon no longer spoken in its purity, but was mixed with the speech of the conquerors. In the passing of the centuries, there were thus formed what are known as the *Romance* languages—the Italian, the French, the Spanish, and the Portuguese. All that remained of the Latin language was what was found in the books that had been written in that tongue before the fall of the Roman Empire. Many of these have been lost during the long period since, but enough remain to show that these people had the richest literature at that time in the world.

But, however great has been the change wrought upon the Latin language by the races that overthrew the people of Rome, many of the books written by great authors of the ruined nation remained unchanged. These still give us in its purity the wonderful language of Rome—the language of Livy and Tacitus, of Cicero and Cæsar, of Virgil and Ovid

and Horace. What they wrote nearly twenty centuries ago remains today exactly as they wrote it, and without doubt it will be studied in the schools for thousands of years to come, in the precise form it has at present. In other words, it is a *dead* language. Of these there are many, and all of them may, like the Latin, be learned by scholars, and the books written thousands of years ago may be read and understood as well as we read and understand the books written in our own language.

GRAMMAR.

5. The Province of Grammar.—In order to understand a language, it is necessary to be familiar with the forms and sounds of its letters and with their various combinations into words. Of these words we must know the forms that are generally approved by the best authorities, how they are pronounced, and what they mean when united in sentences. If, in consequence of being used in various ways, words undergo changes in form, pronunciation, or meaning, the principles and laws that regulate these changes must be understood. Besides all this, it is necessary to be familiar with the origin of words, with the elementary parts that compose them, and with the meaning of these parts alone and in combination. Then, too, when words are associated in sentences to express thought, the person that speaks or writes, as well as he that hears or reads, must, in order to understand exactly what these sentences mean, be acquainted with the laws that regulate the order, form, and relations of the words in such combinations. Besides all this, if we would choose words and arrange them in sentences that shall be smooth and musical, concise and forcible, easily understood and in accordance with the best usage, there are many other things with which we must be perfectly familiar. All this knowledge and much more make up, when in orderly arrangement, the science of *grammar*. Indeed, this subject includes so many things, that a short and comprehensive definition of grammar is perhaps impossible. One of the latest definitions of grammar is as follows:

Definition.—Grammar is the science that treats of the principles that govern the correct use of language, either oral or written.

6. Divisions of Grammar.—The subject of grammar was formerly divided into four general heads—

1. *Orthography*: the grammar of *letters, spelling, and pronunciation* (*Orthoepey*).

2. *Etymology*: the grammar of *words*—their *origin, history, composition*, and the *changes or modifications* in form and use that they undergo.

3. *Syntax*: the grammar of the *sentence*—its *forms, varieties*, and the *dependence and relation* among themselves of the parts that compose the sentence, as well as the *arrangement* of those parts.

4. *Prosody*: the grammar of *verse*, including everything relating to metrical composition.

7. Later Divisions of Grammar.—The fourfold division of the subject matter of grammar has been omitted from nearly all late textbooks on this science. Everything included under the subject of orthography is treated in the spelling books, the works on phonics, and the dictionaries. In like manner, prosody has found a place in the works on rhetoric; and thus nothing besides etymology and syntax has been left for the textbooks on grammar. Even these two subjects have been more or less separated, or have been treated only in part, and various kinds of exercises in language and composition have displaced them. But the latest and best manuals on grammar have shown a tendency to make prominent the grammar of words and the grammar of sentences, or in other words *etymology* and *syntax*.

In this work, therefore, the main considerations will be the grammar of *words* and the grammar of *sentences*, including such principles as are necessary in giving to the sentence its approved form and in properly dividing it into its constituent parts. Many exercises intended to impress these principles on the mind of the student will be found throughout the book. The aim will be to present such a treatment

of grammar, without unnecessary technical difficulties, as will have the greatest possible practical value in the affairs of business and in the general activities of life. It is intended to adapt the work for the attainment of the two recognized objects of a study—*mental discipline* and *practical usefulness*. When both of these ends cannot be realized at the same time, the question of usefulness will be given the precedence rather than that of discipline. It is doubtful, however, whether the development and cultivation of aptitudes for usefulness and practical efficiency do not at the same time yield very valuable mental discipline. It is certain that the mind must direct the body and cooperate with it in every voluntary physical act, and that difficult and complicated action of the physical powers necessitates a high order of mental training.

8. Unit of Thought in Grammar.—Every subject has some central point of interest—some object or matter of consideration that is of higher importance than any other and to which everything else is secondary. Thus, in *orthography* the *word* is the central idea, in *geography* it is *man*—where he is, his surroundings, his wants and how they are supplied; everything belonging to the science gets its importance from its relation to the central figure, man. So in grammar there must be some leading idea or “unit” of greatest interest and importance. What is it? Let us consider.

In orthography and etymology it is the word that fixes the attention. But these are divisions of grammar that are only preparatory to the study of a very much more important branch of the subject—*syntax*, the science of the *sentence*. Grammar deals primarily with *thought* and the forms in which thought is expressed by speech and writing. It is true that words are necessary to the expression of thought; but about words there is nothing fixed or constant. The words we use have been divided into classes, and although there are in the English language nearly or quite 250,000 words, they have all been placed in eight classes. Now, there are many thousands of words that cannot be classified

until it is ascertained what duty or function they perform in a sentence. Thus, the word *fish* may be used as the *name* of something; it may denote an *action*; it may *describe* something. In its first use, it belongs in the class of *nouns*; in the second, it is a *verb*; in its third, it is an *adjective*. These uses are shown in the following sentences:

As a Noun—*Fish* breathe by means of gills.

As a Verb—The boys *fish* in the river.

As an Adjective—To use a *fish* weir is forbidden by law.

It appears, then, that words cannot be grouped in classes or studied in relation to one another until they take their places in sentences. It is in the sentence, therefore, where words perform the functions for which they were devised; it is in the sentence that they have their usefulness, their interest, and their full significance. They are the materials of which men construct the wonderful edifice of expressed thought. Their other uses are of much less importance, except perhaps the study of their origin, history, and composition.

The sentence is, therefore, the unit of thought in grammar.

9. The Domain of Grammar.—The principal function of grammar, therefore, is to investigate the sentence. This includes the consideration of its nature, varieties, forms, the parts of which it is made up, the relations of these parts to one another, and the laws and principles by which the correct forms of sentences are regulated. When sentences are combined we have the many varieties of *composition* in prose and poetry. The various questions arising with reference to the best possible construction of these are discussed in other and higher branches of grammar, such as Composition, Rhetoric, Philology, and Linguistics in general.

The student will carefully note that, in the narrow sense in which the word *grammar* is here employed, it consists mainly in the science of the sentence and of the words that enter into its structure. He should remember that in this science the all-important matter is the sentence, and that around it as a center everything else clusters.

THE SENTENCE.

CLASSIFICATION ACCORDING TO USE.

10. The Arrangement of Words.—There are two ways in which words may be arranged:

1. *Independently*, or *out of relation* to one another.
2. *Dependently*, or *in relation* to one another.

Thus, we may utter or write a number of words so that they shall convey no thought:

the the of in its lays some nest bird cuckoo other one egg.

Here, whatever meaning the words may have separately, they are all used independently, just as much so as a column of words in a spelling book. They are entirely *out of relation*; that is, the meaning of no word has any influence upon that of any other. They do not help one another to express a thought.

Let us now place them *in relation*; that is, so that each one shall do its share in expressing a thought—in making known some truth:

The cuckoo lays its one egg in the nest of some other bird.

The words used here are the same as those above, but the result is different. The words are now in relation, and they have a meaning, not only individually, but collectively. They are joined in such way as to *express a thought*, and the thought is *complete*. We see then that words are arranged in relation when by their union they help one another to express some meaning different from any of the meanings expressed by the words when taken separately.

11. Sentence Defined.—A word is usually defined as the *sign of an idea*. Thus, the word *boy* calls up in the mind a mental image or representation of a particular kind of *object*, and the word *walks* a mental picture of an *action* performed by something that acts. These mind pictures considered separately are *ideas*. But when we bring two or more ideas into proper relation, we have a *thought*, provided certain

essential elements are present; and when, either by speech or in writing, we properly join the words that call up these ideas, the result is a *sentence*. Hence, it appears that *a sentence does for a thought just what a word does for an idea*, that is to say, if a spoken or a written word is the sign of an idea, a spoken or written sentence is the sign of a thought. We have, therefore, the following

Definition. — *A sentence is a collection of uttered or written words arranged in such order or relation as to express a complete thought.*

The boy walks. A fish can swim. When will he return? Be very careful. How quickly the years pass away.

12. Words Implied or Understood. Sentences sometimes seem to consist of but one word; as, *Look. Come.* The student will observe that these words express action. Now, it is clear that every such word requires us to think of an *actor*, although the word denoting the actor is not expressed. Words that are thus necessary to the completeness of a thought, but are not expressed, are said to be *understood*. If, in the one-word sentences just given, every necessary word were expressed, the sentences would be (*You*) *look.* (*You*) *come.*

In order, therefore, that a sentence may express a complete thought, it must consist of words arranged in proper relation; and that this shall be possible, at least *two words* are required. Of these two words, one may be *understood*, but it must be clearly implied.

13. Different Uses or Functions of Sentences. In the communication of thought among men, there are only three different uses or purposes that are served by sentences:

1. *To Make a Statement or Declaration.* If a person has some knowledge or information that he wishes to convey to others, that is, if he wishes to *tell* something, he makes use of a form of sentence called a *statement* or *declaration*.

The earth is a sphere.

An honorable boy is likely to become an honorable man.

We shall visit the city during the holidays.

2. *To Ask a Question.*—A person may desire some information that he believes another person can furnish. In order to obtain it, he employs a form of sentence called a *question*.

Is the earth a sphere?

Is an honorable boy likely to become an honorable man?

Will you visit the city during the holidays?

3. *To Express a Command or an Earnest Wish or Entreaty.*—A person may wish to impose his will on others, or to have it known that he has a strong desire that something shall or shall not be or be done. To accomplish this object he expresses his thought so as to indicate that it is a command or a wish.

Study your lessons.

Do not abandon me here to my enemies.

Would that tomorrow were come.

Sentences, then, may be used *to declare* or *tell*, *to inquire* or *question*, and *to command* or *entreat*.

14. Sentences Defined With Respect to Use.—The fact that there are three ways in which sentences are used has led grammarians to divide sentences with respect to *use* into three great classes:

Definition.—*A declarative sentence is a sentence used to declare or tell something.*

Definition.—*An interrogative sentence is a sentence used to ask a question.*

Definition.—*An imperative sentence is a sentence used to express a command, a wish, or an earnest entreaty.*

15. Exclamatory Sentences.—The thought expressed in sentences may be so mingled with strong feeling and emotions of every kind as to give the sentences an appearance of serving an entirely different use from those described above. Thus, a person may make a statement, ask a question, or express a command under the influence of such earnestness, anger, sorrow, or other emotion that the sentence becomes an *exclamation*. But utterance accompanied by feeling does

not change a statement, a question, or a command into something else, for the emotion affects the sentence only in the manner of utterance. The *use* made of the sentence is still the same.

Some grammarians, however, have divided sentences with respect to their use into *four* kinds—the fourth being the exclamatory sentence. Others have given them double names; as, *exclamatory-declarative*, *exclamatory-interrogative*, and *exclamatory-imperative*. Others again have taken no account of the *feeling* expressed, and have classified sentences only as expressing thought.

This last is clearly the best; for a sentence shows feeling not so much by the words composing it as by the manner in which they are uttered. But this is something dependent entirely on circumstances. A printed sentence becomes exclamatory only when the manner and tones of the person that reads it betray emotion. Moreover, there is nothing constant about the extent or degree in which this exclamatory quality of sentences is indicated by the manner of utterance. For example, every variety of excitement may be shown in speaking such sentences as the following:

The Kremlin is on fire, sire.

Do you imagine that I will submit to such extortion?

Leave the city and the country at once.

But in whatever manner these sentences are uttered, they are still respectively a *statement*, a *question*, and a *command*.

16. Sentences of Mixed Form.—It must not be understood that every sentence has one of these three forms, for such is not the fact. Any two, or all three, of these fundamental forms may be combined in a single sentence. Indeed, the variety of sentential structure is endless.

<i>Imperative:</i>	{ Tell me, ye winged winds that round my pathway roar,
<i>Interrogative:</i>	{ Do ye not know some spot where mortals weep no more?
<i>Imperative:</i>	{ Give me a lever long enough,
	{ And a prop strong enough,
<i>Declarative:</i>	And, single-handed, I can move the world.

When several complete thoughts are thus compounded, it often becomes difficult or even impossible to classify the resulting sentence. This, however, is a matter of little practical importance; and the fact is that these combined forms are not of very frequent occurrence. If the central or leading use of such a sentence is to make a statement or declaration, to ask a question, or to express a command, the entire sentence may accordingly be called *mixed-declarative*, etc., and the nature of the several included sentence elements may be ignored. Thus, the preceding quotations may be classified as *mixed-declarative*, *mixed-interrogative*, and *mixed-imperative*. Or, if it is deemed important, their names may be compounded so as to indicate their elements in order. For the sentences above, we should have *imperative-interrogative* and *imperative-declarative*.

17. Concerning the Punctuation and Capitalization of Sentences.—A sentence, when written, is not properly and in full sense a sentence unless it is correctly capitalized and punctuated. In other words, capitals and marks of punctuation are elements of a written or printed sentence, and are just as essential to its completeness as the words that compose it.

The chief uses of capitals and punctuation marks are two in number:

1. *To separate sentences into related parts and from one another when they appear together in succession.*
2. *To make the meaning easier to be understood, and to avoid ambiguity—double or uncertain meaning.*

The punctuation now used was unknown to the ancients, and their letters were not distinguished as small letters and capitals. Their writing had no breaks to indicate words. About the year 1500, Aldus Manutius, a printer of Venice, reduced punctuation and capitalization to a system that has since undergone but little change.

18. Punctuation of Thought and Emotion in Sentences.—There are two points of view from which sentences may be punctuated:

1. With reference only to the *thought* they express.
2. With reference to the amount of *emotion* to be shown in their utterance.

It has already been remarked (Art. 15) that the emotion shown in uttering a sentence depends on the tones and manner of the speaker or reader. These, with different persons and under varying circumstances, are never the same. It would seem better, therefore, that only the thought should be considered in punctuating complete sentences, and that the feeling, which is so variable and inconstant, should be indicated by the reader as he may deem best. This method is in accordance with a growing usage, for punctuation intended to denote emotion is diminishing year by year.

Besides, it is well known that as men gain in culture and refinement the emotional coloring gradually becomes less noticeable in their speech and writing. Savages, children, and uncultured people usually deal much in exclamations and act in obedience to impulse and feeling. Their sentences are interrupted and broken by the impulsive rush of the feelings, and their thought, if written, requires to be punctuated with many *exclamation marks*. This same action of emotion has led to the condensation of complete sentences into single words, and has given us a large number of terms that play no part in sentential structure. After the manner of emotional speech, they express thought very vaguely and indefinitely, and our language would perhaps be better, and, certainly, more intelligible, if their number were much diminished.

These words, when they appear in print, usually begin, as complete sentences do, with capitals, and are followed by what is called an *exclamation mark* [!]. Some examples of these words are: *Shame! Alas! Hark! Pshaw! Hurrah! Avaunt!*

When the emotion is intended to be particularly strong two or more marks may follow; as, *Bravo! Bravo!! Glorious!!!*

Concerning these words, which grammarians have made into a class called *interjections*, more will be found in another

place. It is sufficient to say here that the careful speaker and writer will use them as rarely as possible. We should aim to have our thoughts as clear and definite as possible, and to express them as completely, concisely, and exactly as language will permit.

SENTENTIAL ELEMENTS.

SUBJECT AND PREDICATE.

19. A Sentence Must Have Two Parts.—We may say of nearly everything that can be pictured by the mind that it is capable of being or doing something or other; or we may deny that it has any such capacity of being or doing.

Thus, of the things denoted by the words *the earth* and *the boy*, many things may be affirmed and denied.

<i>The earth</i>	{	is round.	<i>The boy</i>	{	is not studious.
		turns on its axis.			loved his teacher.
		is the abode of man.			cannot swim.
		is lighted by the sun.			will not come.

These are *declarative* sentences. They are more regular and more frequently used than any other form of sentence. As the student has already learned, their office or use is to state or declare—to *affirm* or *deny*. By some slight and easy changes they may be made *interrogative*.

Is	{	<i>the earth</i>	{	round?
Does				turn on its axis?
Is				the abode of man?
Is				lighted by the sun?
Is	{	<i>the boy</i>	{	not studious?
Did				love his teacher?
Can				not swim?
Will				not come?

In the imperative sentence, words are used in such way as to denote that some person or thing is ordered or entreated to do or be, or *not* to do or be, something or other.

(*You*) Be quiet. (*You*) Do not go. (*You*) Give the poor fellow some food.

In each of these sentences, there are two parts the work or function of which is entirely different. The first part (denoted by *Italic*) represents something that is capable of being or doing something or other; the second part (denoted by heavier type) represents this possible being or action. As long as these parts stand alone, they represent only *ideas*, or groups of related ideas that *declare*, *ask*, or *command* nothing completely; but when they are properly joined they express thoughts—they are *sentences*.

The first of these parts, when used in a sentence, is the *subject* of the sentence; the second part is the *predicate*.

20. Definition of Subject and Predicate.—It is extremely difficult, if not impossible, to give a perfect definition of these two necessary parts of every sentence. The difficulty comes from the fact that there are several kinds of sentences, and that the functions of the subject and the predicate are not the same in all. The definitions usually given refer only to the declarative sentence, and while, in different grammars, they are nearly all slightly different, they are in substance about as follows:

Definition.—*The subject of a declarative sentence is the word or words denoting that of which something is affirmed or denied.*

Definition.—*The predicate of a declarative sentence is the word or words denoting what is affirmed or denied of that which the subject denotes.*

Although it is not easy to find faultless definitions of subject and predicate, the student may learn to *recognize* them without difficulty, and that, after all, is the important matter.

The subject and the predicate of a sentence are called the *principal parts*.

21. EXERCISE.—Mention the class of sentences in which each of the following belongs, and the principal parts of each:

1. Did you ever see the king of the cannibal islands?
2. Beware of the wine cup.
3. Oliver Wendell Holmes wrote "The Guardian Angel."

4. How beautiful and quiet is the night.
5. A cat lived in the house that Jack built.
6. Does it take very long to travel around the world?
7. Strike for the green graves of your sires.
8. Did Plutarch call anger a brief madness?
9. Should the spirit of mortal be proud?
10. Many animals pass the winter without food.
11. Bright shone the light over fair women and brave men.
12. How sweet the moonlight sleeps upon this bank.
13. Now fades the glimmering landscape on the sight.
14. How many years ago did the Spaniards take possession of Cuba?
15. A single acre of ground may be worth a great many thousand dollars.

22. EXERCISE.—Make ten declarative sentences of the following, and then change them into interrogative sentences:

<i>Subjects.</i>	<i>Predicates.</i>
1. Many birds	are all swans.
2. Half of the world	has never blown.
3. The cottage by the sea	stands under a spreading chestnut tree.
4. Birds of a feather	grind very slowly.
5. The wind that profits nobody	deserve the fair.
6. Not all truths	go south in autumn.
7. The mills of the gods	knows not how the other half lives.
8. The village smithy	was struck by lightning.
9. Only the brave	will gather together.
10. Each man's geese	should be made public.

23. Principal Parts Modified and Unmodified.—The subject and the predicate of a sentence may each consist of one word or of many words; but, no matter how many words there are in each, there is nearly always one word that cannot be stricken from either without destroying the meaning of the entire sentence. These two parts, that cannot be dispensed with, sometimes consist of *two words each*, or even of *more than two*, so closely associated that they must be taken together.

In the interrogative sentence the subject and the predicate are still present and evident, but their arrangement is not the same as in the declarative sentence. It is by this difference that a sentence is known to be a question.

Thus, take the sentence,

Early this morning a very beautiful bird with scarlet plumage sang sweetly in the old apple tree on the lawn.

The principal parts in full are,

Subject.—a very beautiful bird with scarlet plumage.

Predicate.—sang early this morning in the old apple tree on the lawn.

Now, when these two parts are reduced to the simplest possible forms—when all the modifiers of each are omitted—the sentence will stand,

Bird sang.

Here we have the *naked*, or *unmodified* subject joined to the *naked*, or *unmodified* predicate. When the words associated with each are allowed to remain, we have the *modified* subject and the *modified* predicate.

24. EXERCISE.—In each of the following sentences the *naked subject* is printed in Italic and the *naked predicate* in heavy type. Mention the modifiers of subject and predicate in each sentence.

1. Many dark *clouds* of threatening appearance rapidly **gather** in dense masses along the mountain.

2. **Will** not the *birds* that delighted us **return** with the spring-time ?

3. What **means** this *heaviness* that hangs upon me ?

4. Grim-visaged *war* **hath smoothed** his wrinkled front.

5. How **does** the *water* **come** down at Lodore ?

6. *Water* its living strength first **shows**,
When obstacles its course oppose.

7. *Nothing* except a battle lost **can be** half so melancholy as a battle won.

8. In the deep shadow of the porch, a slender *bindweed* **climbs** like an airy acrobat.

9. The *doorstep* to the temple of wisdom **is** a knowledge of our own ignorance.

10. Man's *inhumanity* to man **makes** countless thousands mourn.

11. The natural *fear* of children **is** by fearsome tales **increased**.

12. *He* that fears not death **cares** nothing for danger.

25. EXERCISE.—Mention the *naked* and the *modified* subject and predicate of each of the following sentences:

1. In this place ran Cassius' dagger through.

2. A lovelier maiden never walked the earth.

3. The rattling crags among leaps the live thunder.

4. Did not the gentle rain refresh the thirsty flowers ?
5. The evil that men do lives after them.
6. Why did Henry Clay fail to become President ?
7. Full many a flower is born to blush unseen.
8. To become a scholar is his highest ambition.
9. 'Mid pleasure and dissipation do not waste your life.
10. Thus conscience doth make cowards of us all.

It will be observed that, when each of the foregoing sentences is reduced to its simplest form, the central or fundamental sense of the sentence is expressed by the naked subject and the naked predicate. Thus, in Art. 24, the thoughts reduce to the following:

Clouds gather. Will birds return? Heaviness means. War hath smoothed. Does water come? Etc.

(One of these parts *names* something that is capable of being or doing something; the other expresses, in the briefest way, what in each case *is* or *is done*. Grammarians call each of these two indispensable parts of a sentence by different names. Apart from all other words of the sentence, they are the naked, or unmodified, or grammatical subject or predicate, as the case may be. Taken with the other words of the sentence, they are the entire, or logical, or modified subject or predicate.

In this work, the words *subject* and *predicate* will mean the naked, or unmodified subject and predicate; *modified* will be prefixed to the words when the *entire* subject or predicate is meant.

26. Use or Function of Modifiers.—The words *modify*, *modifier*, and *modification* are so much used in grammar that the student should understand their exact meaning. These terms all contain the Latin word *modus*, “a measure.” We may conclude, then, that they all have in them some idea of measuring, as grain is measured.

When we hear a class name like *animal*, there comes to us at once a mental picture or idea of a vast unmeasured class. It includes every creature, dead or living, or yet to live. Now join to the name a measuring word—a modifier—such as *four-footed*. Consider what has happened to our idea or

for, since a word may be differently used in different sentences, it may belong now to one part of speech and again to another. Hence, in order to decide in what class a word belongs, the first question to ask is, what work does it do in the sentence where it is used?

THE NOUN.

28. A very large part of our words are employed to name things that are known by means of our senses, such as *apple, house, tree, sky, river*. Such *names* are **nouns**, for the two words mean exactly the same, except that the one is used in the language of every-day life, while the other is a *technical* or scientific term employed in grammar. Such words as those given above, like *apple* and *sky*, call up in the mind ideas of pictures of *real* things—things with color, size, taste, weight, and other *sensible* qualities. But there are many names that denote things without any such qualities; and we can talk and think of these just as if they were real things. Such words as *distance, loneliness, hatred, emptiness, liberty, vice, and wisdom* are of this kind. While the mental pictures produced by these words are not so distinct or so easily formed as the ideas of objects having sensible qualities, such words can be used in sentences in precisely the same way as nouns denoting sensible things. We can think of *hatred* or *liberty* being or doing something or other, just as we can of *boy, or bird, or star*.

Selfishness is a *vice*.

Patriotism seems a *duty*.

Industry begets *prosperity*.

The *boy* is a *drummer*.

The *sky* resembles a *dome*.

The *farmer* raises *wheat*.

Most nouns consist of but one word, but when two or more words are taken together to name something about which we affirm or deny, the *combination* is a noun.

To live is *to think*. *Writing a long letter to his employers* consumed an hour of his time. "*This is the end of life; I am content*," was the last thing he said.

Definition.—*A noun is any word or expression used as the name of something.*

The noun is employed in several ways in sentences, but its most common and important use is as *subject*, and any noun whatever may be used in this relation. If the noun were the only word capable of performing this work, it would be possible to give a very much better definition of this part of speech than that above. But, as will hereafter appear, there is another part of speech, the *pronoun*, that is used in sentences to perform very nearly the same functions as the noun.

29. EXERCISE.—Mention the nouns and their modifiers in each of the following:

1. Great thoughts, like great deeds, need no trumpet.
2. The truth, the real life and sunshine, lay far out in regions beyond the horizon.
3. Tell me not, in mournful numbers, life is but an empty dream.
4. That divine unrest, that old stinging trouble of humanity, that makes all high achievement and all miserable failure, inspired and supported these barbarians on their perilous march.
5. "They are worlds like ours," said the young man; "and some of the least sparkles that you see are not only worlds, but whole clusters of worlds turning about one another in the midst of space. In them is perhaps the answer to all our difficulties or the cure of all our sufferings; and yet we can never reach them; not all the skill and craft of men can fit out a ship for the nearest of these our neighbors, nor would the life of the most aged suffice for such a journey."
6. "I am a natural law," the visitor replied, "and people call me Death. I am a physician; the best that ever was, for I cure both mind and body with the same prescription. I take away all pain and forgive all sins, and where my patients have gone wrong in life, I smooth out all complications and set them free again upon their feet."

THE PRONOUN.

30. Pronouns make up a small class of short but very useful words. They do not, like nouns, name things, but they refer to them in such a way as to make plain what is meant. They are substitutes for nouns, for the word *pronoun* means *for* or *instead of a noun*. Without them, our language would be very awkward; indeed, it is not easy to see how we could carry on an ordinary conversation. A

person speaking does not need to mention his own name or even to know that of the hearer. He uses *I, we, us, my, me*, etc. when he means himself and those for whom he speaks; and *he, she, it, him, her, they*, etc. when he refers to other persons or things.

It has been stated that the pronoun can do the same work in a sentence that a noun can do; but, in one respect at least, the pronoun is by far the more useful word. The word *horse* can be applied to only one class of animals, but the pronoun *he* can stand for the names of many kinds of animals. The little word *it* can be a substitute for the name of almost any object that can be mentioned. The pronoun, therefore, is a kind of name of very wide application, or a general substitute for names; it enables us to talk of anything whatever without naming it more than once.

Definition.—*A pronoun is a word used to denote persons or things without naming them.*

31. EXERCISE.—Point out the pronouns and tell to what each refers in the following sentences:

1. "I believe that the earth is round," he said to them in his earnest way, "and that it is turning on its axis while we are talking about it."

2. Much more affected than I cared to show, I suffered myself to be persuaded, and at last shook hands with him and made it up.

3. There it lies as flat as my hand and as innocent as a child; but they say that when the wind blows it gets up into water mountains bigger than any of ours, and it swallows down great ships bigger than our mill, and makes such a roaring that you can hear it miles away upon the land.

4. They told me that they saw her sitting in a boat with its head pointed towards the falls, and that as she drifted past him watching her from the cliffs, she waved her hand to him and smiled.

5. He that wrestles with us strengthens our nerves and sharpens our skill.

THE VERB.

32. In every language, by far the most important class of words is the verb; for, without a verb, no thought can be expressed. Every sentence must contain a verb. By

using the noun, we name things concerning which we may affirm or deny something; but to express such affirmation or denial in the form of a sentence—and this is the only form in which a thought can be written or spoken—a verb must be used.

Thus, *stars, birds, John*, are names, but they tell us nothing—they are the signs of *ideas*, not of *thoughts*. But when suitable asserting words are joined to them, we have thoughts—sentences.

Stars shine. Birds have been singing. John will not come.

Such words as *shine, have been singing, will come*, are *verbs*. So important in the sentence is the office of the verb that its name means *the word*—that is, *of all words, the verb is of greatest consequence*.

Grammarians say that the verb *predicates* being or action of that which the subject names. This word comes from a Latin verb meaning “to tell” or “speak out” in public. The fact is that there is much need for a word that has all of the following meanings: to *assert*, to *deny*, to *question*, to *command*, to *wish*, to *entreat*; for the verb is the chief word in sentences by which all these forms of thought are expressed. But, of course, the need cannot be met, for there is no such word. The nearest approach to it is, perhaps, the word *predicate*; and if the student will remember what the grammarians would like to have this word mean, he will know what the functions of the verb are.

Definition.—A *verb* is a word used to predicate being or action of that which is denoted by a subject.

33. EXERCISE —Construct sentences containing the following used as verbs

- 1 Send comes, surprise, conceal, refrain wander, wonder.
- 2 Believed, saw delayed lingered espied hurried, stayed.
- 3 Will repay, has depended, were relieved can promise have gone
- 4 Has been tried, will be rescued, should have obeyed, may have sailed.
- 5 Should have been presented, might have been expected, can be seen, will have been finished, may be trusted.

34. EXERCISE.—Point out the verbs in the following quotation:

“Our brains are seventy-year clocks. The Angel of Life winds them up once for all, then closes the case, and gives the key into the hand of the Angel of the Resurrection.

“Tick-tack! tick-tack! go the wheels of thought; our will cannot stop them; they cannot stop themselves; sleep cannot still them; madness only makes them go faster; death alone can break into the case, and, seizing the ever-swinging pendulum which we call the heart, can silence at last the clicking of the terrible escapement we have carried so long beneath our wrinkled foreheads.

“If we could only get at them, as we lie on our pillows and count the dead beats of thought after thought and image after image jarring through the overtired organ! Will nobody block those wheels, uncouple that pinion, cut the string that holds those weights, blow up the infernal machine with gunpowder?”—*Oliver Wendell Holmes*.

THE ADJECTIVE.

35. The objects denoted by class names or nouns, as *tree, wind, man, house*, are distinguished from one another by their qualities of color, size, form, etc. In order that persons with whom we converse may know which particular individual or group of individuals we mean, *modifiers* must be joined to the class name. We notice the quality that is most prominent in the thing we wish to speak of, and use a modifier to mark that quality.

The modifiers in most common use are

a or an, and the.

The first, *a* or *an*, indicates that any one of a class of objects is meant.

Thus, **a man**, or **an apple**, means *one man* or *one apple* of the great classes denoted by *man* and *apple*.

The modifier *the*, when joined to a noun, shows that some particular thing or group of things is intended. Thus, **the rose**, **the ships**, mean *a particular rose*, *a certain group* of ships.

With or without these modifiers, others denoting *size, number, material*, or other sensible qualities are used with nouns; as, **a large house**, **several visitors**, **the three longest rivers**, **a rich black silk dress**.

It has already been explained how each added modifier narrows or restricts the number of objects denoted by the word that is modified, and at the same time indicates more exactly what the thing intended is like. Thus, the *number* of objects denoted by the following decreases in order, but what they are like becomes more exact and definite: *men*; *tall men*; *tall, dark men*; *tall, dark, handsome men*; *two tall, dark, handsome men*, etc.

Words used in this way to modify the meaning of nouns are **adjectives**. This word means “thrown to” or “near”; it implies that the modifier is joined directly to the modified word; this is generally, but not always, the case. Thus,

The *boy* was, as everyone knew, **intelligent** and **obedient**.
Henry returned from his long walk in the country, **rosy** and **happy**.

Adjectives, when used to modify the meaning of *pronouns*, nearly always follow them; as,

He was for many years **sick** and **helpless**. *You* are **careless**.

Definition.—*An adjective is a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.*

It should be added that adjectives may consist of two or more words; as, *a sweet-scented flower*, **rosy-fingered morning**, *a house with seven gables*, *the story that you heard yesterday*, *a never-to-be-forgotten event*.

In fact, the important question for the student of grammar to determine with respect to words separately and in combination is, What work do they perform in this sentence; what are their functions here? If they modify nouns or pronouns, they are *adjectives*, whatever they may be when otherwise used; if they name things, they are *nouns*; if they stand for, and refer to, names, they are *pronouns*; and so on. It is the *use* made of a word that determines the class in which it belongs.

36. EXERCISE.—1. Write ten sentences containing adjectives that precede the words they modify.

2. Write ten sentences that contain adjectives following the words they modify.

3. Write ten sentences having adjectives both before and after the words they modify.

4. Construct sentences containing adjective modifiers beginning with each of the following words: *to, for, of, with, from, in, by, about, after, before, over, upon, on, along*. For example, "A **stroll along the beach** gave us much enjoyment."

5. Construct sentences containing modifiers in which the following words are used as verbs: *wrote, was built, sailed, was written, had been done, has fallen, were singing, was crossing, has spoken, is, has been, was trusted*. For example,

Lips *we have kissed*, ye are faded and cold,

Hands *we have pressed*, ye are covered with mold.

THE ADVERB.

37. The principal use of this part of speech is to do for the verb just what the adjective does for the noun—*modify its meaning*. With only a few exceptions, the verb, like the noun, denotes classes—not of *objects*, however, but of *actions*. For example, the action expressed by *speak* may be performed in so many different *manners*, at such a variety of *times* and *places*, and under such a multitude of other conditions and circumstances, that it may denote a class of predicated action as extensive as that named by the noun *speech*. This will be clear from the illustration that follows:

<i>I speak</i>	{	<i>clearly, kindly, distinctly, rapidly, slowly.</i> <i>now, soon, often, early, never, frequently.</i> <i>here, there, yonder, everywhere, nowhere.</i> <i>with clearness, by permission, to the students.</i> <i>to convince, to warn of danger, to be understood.</i> <i>when I am spoken to, that my opinion may be known.</i>
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It will be noticed that adverbs as well as adjectives may consist of several words, and that they must be recognized by the office they fill in the sentence.

The word *adverb* implies that this part of speech is joined directly *to the verb* (*ad*, "to"). But while this is often the case, the adverb, like the adjective, may often be widely separated from the verb it modifies.

Solemnly, mournfully, dealing its dole,
The curfew bell is beginning *to toll*.

But it is not the meaning of *verbs* alone that adverbs modify; they are frequently used to modify the meaning of

adjectives as well as that of other *adverbs*. We have seen that verbs, like nouns, are class words. The same is true of most adjectives and adverbs. Thus, when we say, "The day is *fine*," there are many degrees of the quality expressed by the adjective *fine*, many conditions under which it may exist, and we may wish to indicate some of these differences.

The day is fine { *very, extremely, not, decidedly, quite, exceedingly.*
for fishing, overhead, in this region, on the ocean.
since the rain, for a spring day, when the sun shines.

Similarly, in the sentence, *Time flies rapidly*, the adverb denotes many degrees of rapid motion, such as may be indicated by *how, very, quite, somewhat, too, more, less*, etc.

Definition.—*An adverb is a word used to modify the meaning of a verb, an adjective, or another adverb.*

38. EXERCISE.—1. Form sentences in which shall occur the following words used as adverbs: *rightly, gladly, kindly, openly, frequently, occasionally, sweetly, gleefully, gracefully, beautifully, neatly*.

2. Use in sentences the following words as adverbs: *soon, often, when, where, how, why, however, whence, whether, so, as, very, quite, almost*.

3. Use the following as adverbs: *today, tomorrow, yesterday, forever, one by one, in groups, side by side, back and forth, up and down, now and then, by and by, as soon as possible*.

4. Construct five sentences in which adverbs modify adjectives, and five in which adverbs modify adverbs.

5. Make sentences using each of the following as the first element in adverbial modifiers: *by, with, over, amidst, across, before, behind, concerning, against, according to, in order to, because of, with regard to*.

THE PREPOSITION.

39. It has already been explained that words may stand together without bearing to one another any *relation* in meaning—without helping one another to become useful in expressing thought. The words in a list for spelling are of this kind; they are without connection or relation in meaning.

But words may be so arranged that, if their meanings are

suited to one another, they seem to belong together. They form what may be called a compound or modified idea, and without rearrangement may enter a sentence as one of its elements.

This is the case when suitable *modifiers* are joined to *nouns, adjectives, verbs, or adverbs*; as, *good boy, very sorry, quite soon*.

Again, ideas may seem to be so widely separated—so unlike—that nothing could ever bring into relation the words denoting these ideas. Yet they may often be joined by means of a kind of *word bridge* between them. Examples of this are shown below.

<i>A palace</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{by} \\ \text{above} \\ \text{under} \\ \text{in} \\ \text{over} \\ \text{near} \\ \text{across} \end{array} \right\}$	<i>the sea. Write</i>	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{about} \\ \text{concerning} \\ \text{to} \\ \text{against} \\ \text{from} \\ \text{for} \\ \text{among} \end{array} \right\}$	<i>the Indians.</i>
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These *word bridges* are called **prepositions**. They are so named because they are nearly always *placed before* the noun or pronoun that they connect with some preceding word. The work done in sentences by prepositions is twofold: (1) they *connect words*; (2) they *bring words into relation*.

The preposition with the noun or pronoun that follows it, forms a *prepositional phrase*. Phrases of this kind are used as modifiers, just as if they were adjectives and adverbs consisting of only one word.

Thus, in the expressions *a silk dress* and *a dress of silk*, *silk* and *of silk* are each adjective modifiers of the noun *dress*. Again, in *Examine with care* and *Examine carefully*, the verb is modified in meaning both by *carefully* and by the phrase *with care*. The functions of these two modifiers are exactly similar.

The number of prepositions is considerably less than one hundred, but they form a very useful class of words. Indeed, it is not easy to see how we should get along without them,

for some of the shortest of them, such as, *to, for, in, with, from, by, at, on, of*, we use in nearly every sentence.

Definition.—*A preposition is a word used to connect words and bring them into relation.*

Just as *nouns, adjectives, verbs, and adverbs* sometimes consist of two or more words used as one, so also may *prepositions*. The following are called *phrase prepositions*: *The Gospel according to St. Mark; done in spite of opposition; respected in proportion to his wealth; acted with respect to his interests.*

40. EXERCISE.—1. By suitable prepositions establish a relationship in meaning between the following: *rode—the forest, sailed—the ocean, spoke—him, died—sunrise, acted—the enemy, lived—the sea.*

2. Find prepositional phrase modifiers of the following words used as adjectives: *hopeful, polite, disobedient, confident, courageous, revengeful, pleased, resting, covered, sad.*

3. Construct ten sentences in each of which appear two nouns, connected by prepositions.

4. Construct sentences containing the following used correctly as prepositions: *from, before, against, below, under, around, opposite, toward, within, without.*

5. Pick out the prepositional phrases in the following, and tell what each modifies:

“Tears, idle tears, I know not what they mean,
Tears from the depth of some divine despair
Rise in the heart, and gather to the eyes,
In looking on the happy Autumn fields,
And thinking of the days that are no more.

“Fresh as the first beam glittering on a sail
That brings our friends up from the under world,
Sad as the last which reddens over one
That sinks with all we love below the verge;
So sad, so fresh, the days that are no more.

“Dear as remembered kisses after death,
And sweet as those by hopeless fancy feigned
On lips that are for others; deep as love,
Deep as first love, and wild with all regret,
O Death in Life, the days that are no more.”—*Tennyson.*

THE CONJUNCTION.

41. As the word implies, a conjunction is, like the preposition, a word used for joining or connecting other sentential elements. There are, however, some differences that are easily seen between these two classes of words. Some of these are as follows:

1. *Conjunctions* sometimes connect *sentences*, *prepositions* never.

Mary went *to* the picnic, **but** Kate remained *at* home.

Here the two sentences are joined by the conjunction *but*; the preposition *to* connects the words *went* and *picnic*, and *at* connects *remained* and *home*.

2. *Conjunctions* connect words belonging to the same part of speech, or words used in the same way; *prepositions* usually connect different parts of speech, and words used differently.

Kind **and** good. Of the people **or** by the people. James **as well as** John.

3. *Conjunctions* do not, and *prepositions* always do, take after them a noun or pronoun to form phrases that modify other words.

The conjunction, in connecting, does indeed establish some kind of *relation* between the elements connected, yet this is not its most important work in sentences. With the preposition, the chief use is to *denote relation*; with the conjunction, its *joining* or *uniting* function is the prominent fact.

The conjunction *and* is used perhaps more than all other conjunctions taken together. It may be regarded as the *plus sign* of language; for, when placed between two words or phrases or sentences, it denotes that they are to be thought of as united—*their sum of meaning is to be taken*. Other conjunctions that are much used are, *if*, *unless*, *though*, *for* (when it is used to introduce a reason), *because*, *therefore*, *however*, *then*, *hence*, *except*, *provided*, *lest*, etc.

Some conjunctions go in pairs, as, *both—and*, *neither—nor*, *either—or*, *or—or*, *nor—nor*, *not only—but also*.

Conjunctions used in pairs are called *correlative conjunctions*.

Definition.—*A conjunction is a word used to connect sentences, or sentential elements that are used alike.*

42. EXERCISE.—1. By using five different conjunctions, form five sentences of the following:

He trusted in me—I had no confidence in him.

2. Separate each of the following sentences into three others that shall together be equivalent to the separated sentence:

(a) Cherries, plums, and pears succeed well in the United States.

(b) The boy can read, write, and cipher very well indeed.

(c) The drover purchased sheep, calves, and oxen from the farmers.

(d) The President spoke of a government of the people, by the people, for the people.

3. Construct sentences in which shall occur the following words used as conjunctions: *because, hence, or, notwithstanding, unless, except, although, if, yet, whereas.*

4. By using conjunctions, unite the following groups of sentences into one sentence for each group:

(a) { Rome was not built in a day.
A fortune is not made in a year.

(b) { The Spanish fleet entered the harbor of Santiago.
The Spanish fleet tried to escape to the ocean.
The Spanish fleet was destroyed by the blockading vessels.

(c) { The great prizes of life are won by ability.
The great prizes of life are not won by trickery.
The great prizes of life are not won by indolence.

THE INTERJECTION.

43. In addition to the seven classes of words already described, there is another class commonly reckoned by grammarians as forming the *eighth* part of speech. Some examples are the following: *oh! alas! hark! ha!* While it is convenient, and perhaps better, that words of this kind should be regarded as forming another part of speech, it should be remembered that they have no place in sentential structure. They are *thrown among* (*inter*, “among,” and *jactus*, “thrown”) sentences to indicate *feeling* only, not *thought*. In language, they are as much out of grammatical relation as the figures that are used in numbering chapters and paragraphs. Some authorities say that interjections represent

entire sentences condensed into single words. By this they mean that *pshaw!* for example, is a kind of equivalent for *What you say is absurd*, and *hist!* for *Be quiet and listen; for I hear a strange noise*, or the like. Of course, no one can say with any certainty what thought is implied by an exclamation that is intended to express nothing more than emotion of some kind. A sigh or a groan is, in a sense, an interjection, and while these generally convey a *hint* of the thought appropriate to them, they do not *express* thought in the precise way required in the sentences of which grammar takes account. We often hear imitations of the noises made when we cough or sneeze or laugh or weep, and these sounds may be represented in print; and the cries of certain animals are indicated by such words as *mew! bow-wow! cluck! baa! whippoorwill!* These are perhaps to be classed as interjections, if, indeed, they are *words*, but it seems absurd to regard them as *parts of speech*. The fact that they *resemble* words is the only reason that could possibly be given for noticing them in grammar. In expressing *thought*, we do not need such words as *oh! alas! ugh! ha! fie! fudge! hem! heigh-ho! hey!*

Definition.—*An interjection is a word that has no relation to other words in a sentence, and is used to express feeling or emotion.*

PARTS OF SPEECH GROUPED.

44. The parts of speech, considered with respect to the importance of the work each does in expressing thought, may be placed in two groups:

1. **The Indispensable Parts of Speech.**—These are the **verb** and the **noun**, or its substitute, the **pronoun**. With the *verb* and the *noun* or the *pronoun*, a complete sentence may be formed; but these are the only parts of speech with which this can be done.

2. **The Auxillary or Helping Parts of Speech.**—These include the five remaining classes of words:

(a) *The Modifiers.*—The **adjective** and the **adverb**.

(b) *The Connectives*.—The preposition and the conjunction.

(c) *The Interjection*.—These words serve to indicate the *feeling* intended to be associated with expressed *thought*.

It will hereafter appear that words are sometimes used in such way as to make it difficult to decide in what class they belong; also that some words do double duty in the sentence. Thus there are many words that modify in the manner of adjectives, and at the same time have the function of pronouns; others again *modify* as *adverbs* and *connect* as *conjunctions*. But these cases will be considered in the proper places.

SYNOPSIS.

Sentential Elements	I INDISPENSABLE	{	1. <i>Noun</i> —Names something.
			2. <i>Pronoun</i> —Refers to names.
			3. <i>Verb</i> —Expresses what is or is done.
	II AUXILIARY	{	1. <i>Modifiers</i> { (a) <i>Adjective</i> — Modifies meaning of nouns and pronouns.
			(b) <i>Adverbs</i> —Modifies meaning of verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.
		{	2. <i>Connectives</i> { (a) <i>Preposition</i> — Brings words into relation with noun or pronoun.
			(b) <i>Conjunction</i> — Connects similar elements.
		{	3. <i>Interjection</i> —Colors thought with feeling.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 2.)

FUNCTIONS OF SENTENTIAL ELEMENTS.

WORD ELEMENTS.

THE NOUN AND THE PRONOUN.

1. Functions of Nouns and Pronouns.—So far as has yet been considered, the only work done in sentences by nouns and pronouns is to stand in the relation of *subject*.

Nouns as subjects.—The **moon** lights the earth. **William** was hurt.

Pronouns as subjects.—I saw the President. **Who** inquired for me?

But besides filling the office of subject, nouns and pronouns have other uses in sentences. Their most important functions are as follows:

1. As Absolute, or Independent.—In grammar, these two words, *absolute* and *independent*, are employed with the same meaning. We have seen that the interjection is used apart from, and independent of, the sentence near which it occurs. In a similar way, a noun or pronoun used independently may be omitted without destroying the sentence. There are several varieties of the absolute use of nouns and pronouns:

(a) With a *verbal* to express a *cause* or an *independent fact*. (A *verbal* is a word derived from a *verb*, but not used .

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with predicating force, or in the form to make assertions; as, *loving, being*, etc.)

The **earth** *being* round, men can sail around it. **I** *being* sick, they sent my brother. The **example** *having been solved*, the teacher read another to the class.

In these sentences, *earth*, *I*, and *example* are independent or absolute, because the phrases in which they are found are not required, for the sentences are complete without them.

(b) In *direct address*.

Go home, my *child*. Come here, *you*. *Friends, Romans, countrymen*, hear me for my cause.

(c) By *pleonasm*.

The **boy**, O where was he? *Shakespeare*; no greater poet ever lived. *He* that hath, to him shall be given. The *North* and the *South*, thou hast created them.

This construction is used for the sake of emphasis. The word *pleonasm* is derived from the Greek word *pleōn*, meaning "more." The notion is that more words are used than are needed.

(d) By mere *exclamation*.

Poor *beast*! He knows nothing of the laws of supply and demand. *Liberty*! How many of earth's oppressed have yearned for liberty.

2. **As Predicate Complement.**—A *complement* is something added to *complete* or fill out something else. In nearly every sentence the predicate has with it a noun or pronoun used to complete its meaning. A noun or pronoun so employed is called the *predicate complement*. There are two varieties of this construction:

(a) The *predicate noun* or *pronoun*, after such verbs as *be* [am, is, are, was, etc.], *seem*, *appear*, *become*, etc.

He *was* a *scholar*. John *became* an *engineer*. The earth *is* a *planet*. It *was* *she*.

A predicate noun may be known by the fact that *it always denotes the same person or thing as the subject*. Thus, in the sentences above, *he* and *scholar* represent each the same person. The same is true of *John* and *engineer*, of *earth* and *planet*, and of *it* and *she*.

(b) The *object noun* or *pronoun*—usually called *the object of the verb*.

The boy ate his *dinner*. A ball struck *him*. We saw *them* on the street. He *whom* they loved has gone away.

3. As the Object of a Preposition.—

They rowed **across** the lake. We went *with them to* the country.

A noun or pronoun in this construction is said to be the *object* of the *preposition*.

4. In Explanation of the Meaning of Another Noun or Pronoun.—

Socrates the **philosopher** drank poison. Did you see *him*, the **traitor** and **renegade**?

A noun thus used to explain the meaning of another noun or pronoun is said to be **in apposition** with the word explained. This is because it is *placed near* the word it explains, for *apposition* means “placed near.” A word in apposition to another always denotes the *same person or thing* as the word that is explained. Thus, *Socrates* and *philosopher* are two names of the same person.

5. As a Modifier Denoting Possession or Origin.—

The **boy's shoes**, **our horses**, the **world's productions**, the **sun's heat**.

The first two modifying words *boy's* and *our* denote *possession*; the last two indicate the *source* or *origin* of the things denoted by *productions* and *heat*. Unlike the function of words in *apposition*, a possessive modifier denotes something *different* from the meaning of the word that is modified.

6. As the Equivalent of an Adverbial Phrase.—

He is **six feet** tall = He is tall *to* or *by six feet*. The meat weighed **five pounds** = The meat weighed *to the extent of five pounds*.

Here the adjective *tall* is modified by *feet* used as an adverb; and the verb *weighed* is modified in a similar manner by *pounds*, used as the equivalent of an adverbial phrase.

The foregoing are all the uses served in sentences by

nouns and pronouns, and it is important that the student should learn to recognize them quickly and with certainty.

2. EXERCISE.—Tell in which of the foregoing ways each noun or pronoun printed in *Italic* in the following sentences is used:

1. She was the *pet* of *her class* in *school*.
2. *Ye crags* and *peaks*, *I'm* with *you* once again. *I* hold to *you* the *hands* that once *I* held to show *they* still are free.
3. 'Tis sweet to hear the watch-dog's honest *bark*
Bay deep-mouthed *welcome* as we draw near *home*;
'Tis sweet to know there is an *eye* will mark
Our coming, and look brighter when *we* come.
4. Of earthly *goods*, the best is a good *wife*; a bad, the bitterest curse of human life.
5. Loud *wind*, strong *wind*, sweeping o'er the *mountains*, pour forth from airy *fountains*, *drafts* of life for *me*.
6. *Experience* and *reason* show that *affairs* confided to many *persons* rarely succeed.
7. *They* carried *us* five *miles*, and for the *service* *we* paid fifty *shillings*.
8. *Time*, you *thief*, who love to get *sweets* into *your list*, put that in.
9. *Wealth*; that is a *burden* carried by human *donkeys* and supposed to be of great *value*
10. Beware of desperate *steps*; the darkest *day*,
Live till *tomorrow*, will have passed away.

THE ADJECTIVE AND THE ADVERB.

3. The adjective, as we have seen, is a word used with a noun or pronoun to *measure*, *restrict*, or *narrow* its application. In doing this work, the adjective as a modifier shows the following uses:

1. The Adjective May Be Joined Directly to the Modified Word.—

Good weather; *few persons*; *that house*; *seven men*.

We saw *him*, *busy* and *contented*. A *lady*, *beautiful* and *refined*, conducted our party.

Adjectives used as in the last two sentences are said to be used *appositively*, because they *explain* very much as a *noun*

in apposition explains, and their *position* is much the same as that of nouns used appositively.

When an adjective is placed directly before the noun it is used *adjunctively*; as, *good weather*.

2. The Adjective May Be Used as a Complement of the Predicate.—

The *merchant* was **honest, shrewd, and successful**.

Great is *Diana* of the Ephesians. *I* am **sure** that *you* are **wrong**.

An adjective used thus is called the *predicate adjective*, or the *attribute*. It is a construction exactly similar to that with the predicate noun or the predicate pronoun. This is the *predicative*, or *attributive* use of the adjective.

3. The Adjective May Be Used Alone as a Noun.—

The **good** die young. The **gay** will laugh when thou art gone. The **beautiful** is not always the **best**, neither is the **ugly** or **deformed** the **worst**.

4. The usual function of the adverb is to modify or restrict the meaning of the following elements:

(a) *Verbs*.—*Walk* **slowly**. **Softly** and **tremblingly** he *spoke* her name.

(b) *Adjectives*.—I have been **very sick**. He exhibited to us his **extremely beautiful** captive.

Even when an adjective is used as a noun, it may be modified by an adverb.

Among the people of this world, there is not so much difference as is generally supposed between the **exceedingly good** and the **extremely bad**.

Adjectives used as in the last sentence may take *adjectival* modifiers.

The philosophers tell us that **exceeding good** is often followed by **some extreme bad**.

(c) *Other Adverbs*.—They came **very early**, and stayed **so long**, that **quite gladly** we saw them depart.

The forms and the usual functions of the other word elements of sentences have already been explained sufficiently for present purposes.

PHRASE ELEMENTS.

DEFINITION OF A PHRASE.

5. We very often find in sentences groups consisting of two or more words that seem to belong together, very much as if they were parts of a compound word. They unite several closely related ideas into a compound idea, and together they do the duty of a single word in the sentences where they occur. This duty or function is to *modify* like an adjective or an adverb, or to *name* some thing or some action in the way that nouns do. Although the adjectival and adverbial uses of prepositional phrases have already been touched upon, the importance of the general subject of phrases is so great as to require further consideration.

There are two special marks by which a group of words may be known to form a phrase:

1. *It must do the work that is usually done by one word.*

To sail around the world requires a voyage of **many weeks**.

He was busy **in the office** *during the whole day*.

Catching fish is a pleasant method *of passing time*.

In these sentences, *to sail around the world* is a *noun* phrase composed of two phrases, *to sail* and *around the world*. So also is *catching fish* a phrase. The phrase, *of many weeks*, modifies the noun *voyage*, and *of passing time* modifies the noun *method*; these are, therefore, *adjective* phrases. The adjective *busy* is modified by the *adverbial* phrase *in the office and during the whole day*.

All these phrases are used just as if each were a single word.

2. *It must not contain a verb that predicates; that is, a verb that actually asserts, denies, etc.*

In the sentences above, the expressions *to sail*, *catching*, and *during* are *verbals*, since they are derived from verbs; but they are not in a full sense *verbs*. It is impossible to predicate with them alone. Predication by verbals is only

assumed or *taken for granted*—not actually made. This will be more fully explained in another place.

Definition.—*A phrase is a group of words used as a single part of speech, but containing no word of real predication.*

6. EXERCISE.—1. Construct sentences in which shall occur the following phrases: *during the rain, upon the hill, over the sea, according to law, by an honorable life, through a dark wood, of the people, beside his sister, behind the wagon, across a wide river.*

2. Separate the following compound phrases into the simple phrases of which they are composed: *at the bottom of the sea, with his sister by his side, in a boat on the river, during a trip through Europe in vacation, earning money by the hardest kind of labor, observing the time by the clock in the steeple of the old church on the hill.*

3. Use the following phrases in sentences, and decide what is the function of each; that is, tell which you use as *nouns*, which as *adjectives*, and which as *adverbs*: *to study, to be answered, to have seen, to have been chosen, seeing a procession, eating an apple, to write a letter, to earn his living, having built a home, having been sick.*

4. Write sentences and use in them the following words each of which is modified by a phrase: *loaf, seen, kind, caught, fun, black, skate, run, river, explore.*

5. Use each of the following as the first part of a phrase: *against, between, without, upon, pushing, having reached, in reply to, with regard to, down, to earn.*

7. EXERCISE.—Pick out the noun, the adjective, and the adverbial phrases in the following sentences:

1. Years steal fire from the eyes as vigor from the limbs.

2. Know when to speak; for many times it brings
Danger to give the best advice to kings.

3. But I doubt not through the ages one increasing purpose runs,
And the thoughts of men are widened by the process of the suns.

4. He drew his bridle in the shade
Of the apple trees, to greet the maid,
And ask a draft from the spring that flowed
Through the meadow, across the road.

5. Talking is like playing on the harp; there is as much in laying the hand on the strings to stop their vibrations as in twanging them to bring out their music.

6. You must get into the habit of looking intensely at words, and of assuring yourself of their meaning syllable by syllable—nay, letter by letter.

7. Being entirely right and adhering to your opinion in spite of all temptation to do otherwise, will be found more difficult than being a hero in battle.

8. There are some enemies so base that even to conquer them is a kind of dishonor.

9. If there is any one point upon which, in six thousand years of thinking about right and wrong, wise and good men have agreed, or have discovered by experience, it is that God dislikes idle people and cruel people more than any other.

CLAUSE ELEMENTS.

DEFINITION OF A CLAUSE.

8. Two or more sentences may be made into one by means of *conjunctions*. After the union of these elements, they are no longer sentences, but *clauses* of a sentence. Thus, take the two sentences,

The earth is round.

Men can sail around the earth.

These two sentences may be united into one sentence by using as a conjunction any one of the following: *and, if, so, then, because, for, since, inasmuch as, seeing that*, etc.

The earth is round, **for** men can sail around it.

Here we have a sentence consisting of two clauses each having one subject and one predicate.

But sometimes, when separate sentences are united, slight changes are necessary. This happens in such cases as the following:

1. *When the subjects in two or more of the sentences denote the same person or thing.*

The sun *rises* in the east.

The girls *stayed* at home.

The sun *moves* across the sky.

The girls *did* the housework.

The sun *sets* in the west.

The boys *went* to the picnic.

The sun rises in the east, (and) moves across the sky, **and** sets in the west.

The girls stayed at home **and** did the housework, **but** the boys went to the picnic.

Here we still have three statements, which seem to be very nearly complete; for the omitted subjects are clearly implied.

2. *When two or more of the predicates are alike.*

Spring returned once more. The day is dreary.
The birds returned once more. The world is dreary.
The flowers returned once more. My life is dreary.

Spring **and** the birds **and** the flowers returned once more.
The day **and** the world **and** my life are dreary.

A comparison of the sentences here with those above will show that the clause elements are more nearly complete when all the predicates are retained than when only one appears. In other words, the predicate is by far the most important part of a sentence. Hence, a sentence has as many clauses as it has different predicates; for, if it be rightly constructed, the subjects that are not expressed are plainly implied. Moreover, the *imperative* regularly omits the subject, but the predicate can rarely be omitted.

Definition.—*A clause is one of the predicated parts of a sentence that is composed of two or more such parts or elements. The subject of a clause may or may not be expressed.*

9. EXERCISE.—Decide what clauses compose the following sentences, and mention the connectives:

1. The days were warm, but the nights were very cold.
2. Be very quiet and listen attentively to the teacher's explanation.
3. The wild geese fly north when the days become warm in the spring.
4. The Cossack prince rubbed down his horse, and made for him a leafy bed.
5. The man was thoroughly honest, although he was very poor indeed.
6. Spend the days of youth wisely, or you may in age regret your neglect.
7. The Tartar's horse looked as if the speed of thought were in his limbs.
8. I had heard that voice before, though I could not have told where.
9. Byron died in Greece when he was only thirty-six years old.
10. Sir Isaac Newton proved that the path of every planet must be an ellipse.

FUNCTIONS OF CLAUSES.

10. Clauses do a work in sentences exactly like that done by phrases.

1. A Clause May Have the Function of a Noun.—In this relation, a clause may be

(a) The subject of a sentence.

What became of Henry Hudson was never ascertained.

After the horse has been stolen is not the time for locking the door of the stable.

That the prisoner was guilty appeared very doubtful.

(b) The predicate noun.

The question is, *who was the inventor of the steam engine?*

The critical moment was *when he crossed the Rubicon*.

(c) The object of a verb.

Do you know *when the train leaves for Boston?*

He did *exactly what he was told*.

(d) The object of a preposition.

The child wondered about *why the sky is so blue*.

(e) In apposition with a noun or pronoun.

The fact, *who had done the damage*, was soon known.

2. A Clause May Have the Function of an Adjective.

The land *that was discovered* was inhabited by savages.

The spot *where John Brown's body rests* is in the Adirondacks.

3. A Clause May Have the Function of an Adverb.

They buried him *where he fell*.

Busy *when he called*, I could not see him.

Exactly *when the clock struck*, our train started.

The first clause modifies the meaning of the verb *buried*; the second, that of the adjective *busy*; the third modifies the meaning of *started*.

THE RANK OF CLAUSES.

11. With respect to rank, there are two relations in which clauses may stand to one another.

1. Clauses May Be of Equal Rank.—When two or more sentences are united into one, the relation of the clauses in

the resulting sentences is entirely dependent on the kind of conjunction or other connective word used. If such words as *and*, *or*, *but*, *also*, and others of the class called *coordinating conjunctions* are used, the resulting sentence will consist of clauses equal in rank—each clause being of just as much importance as any other. Clauses connected by conjunctions of this kind are **coordinate clauses**.

He finished his work *and* received his pay.

The moon is not very distant, *but* we shall never succeed in reaching it.

2. **Clauses May Be of Unequal Rank.**—Clauses may be so joined in a sentence as to have unequal importance as sentential elements. For example, a clause may be nothing more than a *noun* in the function it fills, or it may be a mere *modifier*, doing the work of an *adjective*, or of an *adverb*.

Noun Clause.—He told me *how I should enter a room*.

Adjective Clause.—The castle *that we now own* was built during the period *when Queen Elizabeth ruled England*.

Adverbial Clause.—Do not strike *until the iron is hot*.

In the first sentence, the clause is the object of the verb *told*, just as *secret* would be in the sentence, He *told* me a *secret*. In the next sentence, the first clause modifies the noun *castle*, and the second, the noun *period*. These are therefore *adjective* clauses. In the last sentence, the verb *do strike* is modified by the clause *until the iron is hot*.

Clauses so used may generally be omitted without destroying the main sense of the sentence, for they serve only to add some circumstance or explanation to the meaning of a more important clause. Such are called **subordinate**, **dependent**, or **secondary clauses**, because of their inferior importance as sentential elements. The clause that expresses the main thought and has attached to it one or more helping or subordinate clause elements is called by various names; as, **principal**, **leading**, **primary**, or **independent clause**.

SUBORDINATING CONNECTIVES.

12. The words used to unite *independent* with *dependent* clauses are of three kinds:

1. **Subordinating conjunctions**; *as, if, unless, except, provided, lest, because*, etc.

2. **Conjunctive adverbs**; *as, when, while, why, where, after, before, as*, etc.

3. **Relative pronouns**; *as, who, whose, whom, which, that, what, whoever*, etc.

13. EXERCISE.—1. By using suitable subordinating conjunctions or conjunctive adverbs, unite the following so as to form ten sentences each containing an independent clause and one or more adverbial dependent clauses:

We shall depart	{	<i>The sun rises.</i> <i>The day is fine.</i> <i>We are not welcome.</i> <i>Our money is all gone.</i> <i>The game has been killed.</i>
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2. Make sentences of the following, and let each contain three or more clauses; state also the office of each dependent clause:

The traveler,	{	<i>whose word had been doubted,</i> <i>whom the officer arrested,</i> <i>who smiled so pleasantly,</i> <i>whoever he might have been,</i> <i>that we met yesterday,</i>	}	was allowed to proceed.
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14. EXERCISE.—Mention the independent and the dependent clauses in the following sentences, and describe fully the function of each dependent clause:

1. I concluded from what he said that he had never been to Europe.
2. When we were sailing up the Hudson we noticed the Palisades.
3. Tell me what kind of company you keep, and I will tell you how much you value a pure life and a good name.

4. Work while the day endures, for a night is coming when no man can work.

5. "What Will He Do With It?" is the title of one of Bulwer's novels.

6. She sang for us a beautiful song, "Comin' Thro' the Rye."

7. Pleasure, with a winning smile, said, "Come with me and I will make thee happy."

8. He was glad when he noticed how the fish kept their heads up.

9. A stranger came one night to Yussouf's tent,
Saying, "Behold one outcast and in dread,
Against whose life the bow of power is bent,
Who flies, and has not where to lay his head."

10. Very soon the young philosopher finds that things which roll so easily are very apt to roll into the wrong corner, and get out of his way when he most wants them.

FORMS OF SENTENCES.

THE SIMPLE SENTENCE.

15. Sentences Have a Twofold Classification.—We have seen that sentences considered with regard to the *use* that is made of them are divided into three classes. If used to make a statement, they are *declarative*; if they express a question, they are *interrogative*; if used in commanding, entreating, or wishing, they are *imperative*. We have seen too that any one of these three classes may become *exclamatory*, and that various combinations of two or more of these uses may occur in one sentence.

We come now to consider another and very important classification—one that has no regard to the *use* that sentences serve, but is based upon their *form*, or *structure*.

16. The Simplest Sentential Structure.—The simplest possible structure that a sentence can have is the form composed of two words, one the *subject*, the other the *predicate*.

Birds fly. Water flows. Perseverance succeeds. Who came? They retreat.

In the imperative sentence, the subject is generally omitted, but if it were not clearly implied there could be no *thought* expressed, and, therefore, no *sentence*.

(*You*) Come. (*Thou*) Behold, or Behold *thou*. (*Ye*) Go, or Go *ye*.

Definition.—*A simple sentence is a sentence composed of one subject, expressed or clearly implied, and one predicate.*

17. Other Elements in a Simple Sentence.—The naked form of the simple sentence is not often met with in actual use; some other elements are usually added to the subject, or to the predicate, or to both. These elements may be *words* or *phrases*, but not *clauses*. When clauses enter, the sentence is no longer *simple*.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Modifiers.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Modifiers.</i>
<i>Birds</i>	{ many beautiful of varied colors of sweetest song	<i>fly</i>	{ continually in the tropical forests from tree to tree of Central Africa

In the tropical forests of Central Africa many beautiful *birds* of varied colors and sweetest song *fly* from tree to tree continually.

<i>Subject.</i>	<i>Modifiers.</i>	<i>Predicate.</i>	<i>Modifiers.</i>	<i>Object.</i>	<i>Modifiers.</i>
<i>Student</i>	{ that thoughtful from the city	<i>learned</i>	{ with care, always, before school time, in the morning	<i>lessons</i>	{ his hardest for that day

In the morning before school time, that thoughtful *student* from the city always *learned* with care his hardest *lessons* for that day.

18. EXERCISE.—Using such connectives as are required, fit the following modifiers to the principal parts so as to form simple sentences. Endeavor to get the best possible arrangement and punctuation.

1. *Girl* { pretty, a, with blue eyes,
little, very, charming } *came* { to our ring, promptly,
in answer }
2. *Animals* { of our country,
many, wild,
interesting } *may be seen* { playing, in captiv-
ity, by the river,
on pleasant days }
3. *Lesson* { for children, the,
difficult, most } *is* { wisely, to learn,
to use, how, time }
4. *Plain lay* { under the autumn sky, with its great cities,
the, with its silver river, before him, broad }
5. *He settled* { with an iron constitution, with a friendly voice,
down, six feet three in his stockings, a kind,
young man, talkative }

19. EXERCISE.—By adding word and phrase elements, expand the following simple sentences, as in the preceding exercise. The expanded sentence must still be simple.

1. The *song* died. The *days* passed. The *roses* faded. The *time* will come. The *leaves* have fallen. The *work* has been finished.

2. *Who* discovered? Did *Crusoe* live? Does his *heart* beat? Should *nobody* praise? (*You*) Come. (*You*) Continue. (*You*) Be.

20. Compound Members.—Two or more simple sentences may often be contracted into one sentence, which is itself simple. This is done by joining their like members by means of conjunctions.

Subjects Compounded.—

{ John goes to school.
His sister goes to school. } = John and his sister go to school.

{ Is the earth round like a ball?
Is its moon round like a ball?
Are all the other planets and their moons round like a ball? } = { Are the earth and its moon, and all the other planets and their moons, round like a ball? }

These are *simple sentences with compound subjects*.

Objects Compounded.—

{ We gathered walnuts.
We gathered chestnuts.
We gathered beechnuts. } = { We gathered walnuts, chestnuts, and beechnuts. }

Here we have *a simple sentence with a compound object*.

Predicate Nouns or Adjectives Compounded.—

{ Mr. Blaine was an orator.
Mr. Blaine was a statesman.
Mr. Blaine was a patriot. } = { Mr. Blaine was an orator, a statesman, and a patriot. }

{ The boy has been honest.
The boy has been truthful.
The boy has been industrious. } = { The boy has been honest, truthful, and industrious. }

In the first of these sentences, the *predicate noun* is compound; in the next, the *predicate adjective* is compound.

Modifying words and phrases, either adjective or adverbial, may be compounded in the same manner as the more

important members. If the sentence containing these compound elements has only one predicated verb, it is a simple sentence.

The cunning and treacherous *visitor* arrested by the guard strongly and earnestly **insisted** upon his innocence.

That handsome *boy* and his *sister* **are** always polite and respectful in their bearing towards others.

Simple sentences are often very long. There is one condition necessary in order that a sentence may be simple—it must contain but one predicated verb.

THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

DEFINITION OF THE COMPLEX SENTENCE.

21. A sentence may be composed of two clauses of unequal rank.

Come *when you have time.* **Who believes** *that the earth is flat?* **Lucy was the sweetest child** *that ever brightened a home.* He quoted the proverb, "*Honesty is the best policy.*" "*Who are you?*" he inquired.

In these sentences the principal clauses are in **black-faced** type, and the subordinate clauses in *Italic*. Such sentences are called **complex sentences**.

A sentence may contain several subordinate clauses. In this case, if there is only one principal clause, the sentence is still a complex sentence.

It is dangerous to be abroad { *when the sun has gone down,*
and
while the air is damp.

While youth lasts }
and } **let us be happy, if we can.**
our friends are many, }

Definition.—A complex sentence is a sentence consisting of one principal clause and one or more subordinate clauses.

22. EXERCISE.—Combine the following groups of simple sentences into complex sentences, and underscore the principal clause. Change as few words as possible.

1. The birds go south. The snow falls. The weather becomes cold.
2. The sky falls. We shall catch sparrows. We are alive at that time.
3. "Who killed Cock Robin?" The school assembled. The master inquired.
4. He might become a scholar. He was seventeen years old. Harry's father sent him to college.
5. The foolish man became angry. The goose laid golden eggs. He killed the goose.

23. EXERCISE.—Write complex sentences as follows:

1. Two, each of which has an adjective clause.
2. Two, each of which has an adverbial clause.
3. Two, each of which has two or more clause modifiers.
4. Two, each of which has for its subject a noun clause.
5. Two, each of which has for its object a noun clause.
6. Two, each of which has a noun clause used as the predicate noun.
7. Two that have noun clauses in apposition.
8. Two that have clause objects of prepositions.

THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

DEFINITION OF THE COMPOUND SENTENCE.

24. If by the use of subordinating connectives clauses be joined in such relation that one of them is more important than any of the others, the sentence is, as we have learned, *complex*. But if coordinating connectives be used, the clauses joined will be of *equal rank*. If these coordinate clauses do not stand in an inferior or dependent relation to some more important clause, the sentence is called a **compound sentence**.

The simplest possible form of the compound sentence consists of two imperative clauses of which the subjects are understood.

Go and see. Come or go. Call or write. Sleep and rest.

Other and longer compound sentences having two clauses of equal rank—independent clauses and no dependent clauses, are as follows:

Sit still and study your lesson. Who **met** and **repulsed** the enemy? I neither **know** nor **do I care**. The farmer **plowed** the field and **sowed** it with wheat. The farmer **plowed** and **sowed** in the spring. **Dare** to do right, **dare** to be true.

Compound sentences may be lengthened by the addition of subordinate clauses:

When we started the rain was falling, but the sky was clear before we reached our destination. The good die young, is an old saying, but it is not true. Do not trust him that makes many promises, nor doubt him too much that makes few.

Definition.—*A compound sentence is a sentence composed of two or more independent clauses, with or without subordinate clauses.*

Such sentences as the following are by some grammarians classed as *simple sentences with compound predicates*:

The winds *blew* and *beat* upon that house.

The children *rode, walked, drove, or played* in the park every day.

Mary *washed* the dishes, *polished* the silver, and *dusted* the furniture.

In this work, however, such sentences are regarded as *compound*. The reason for this is that the *verb* is by far the most important element in every sentence. It can never be omitted from a simple sentence, but any other element may be lacking. The subject of an imperative sentence is regularly omitted, while, without a verb, there can be no sentence—no expressed thought. A sentence is therefore regarded as containing as many clauses as there are verbs of actual predication.

25. Connectives May Be Understood.—When we wish to unite words into a series, it is common to omit some of the connectives when they may easily be understood and supplied.

Apples, pears, peaches, *and* other fruits are found in the market.
Busy, happy, contented, charming, were those children.

In a similar way, the connectives between clauses are often omitted; or, the arrangement of the clauses may be such that the connective serves to *introduce* rather than to *connect*.

I promised him I would visit him = I promised him *that* I would visit him.

Should he come I would go = I would go *if* he should come.

While we live let us live = Let us live *while* we live.

Where do you think he has gone? *Whom* do you imagine I saw?

26. EXERCISE.—Write the following compound sentences and underscore the verbs of the independent clauses. Tell the office of each subordinate clause, and mention the connectives.

1. Sorrow was dead indeed in her, but peace and perfect happiness were born.

2. Once upon a time a good many years ago, there was a traveler, and he set out upon a journey.

3. When it rained, they remained within doors; but when it was fine weather, they wandered all day long in the woods.

4. The sky was so blue, the sun was so bright, the water was so sparkling, the leaves were so green, the flowers were so lovely, and they heard so many singing birds and saw so many butterflies, that everything was beautiful.

5. He called many times but there was no reply, and when he passed out of the wood and saw the peaceful sun going down upon a wide purple prospect, he came to an old man sitting upon a fallen tree.

6. The whole journey was through a wood, only it had been open and green at first, like a wood in spring; and now it began to be thick and dark, like a wood in summer.

7. I consider the noble savage a prodigious nuisance and an enormous superstition; and his calling rum "firewater" and me a "pale-face" wholly fail to reconcile me to him.

8. The day is done, and the darkness falls from the wings of night
As a feather is wafted downward from an eagle in his flight.

9. Mourn not for the owl, nor his gloomy plight;
The owl hath his share of good:
If a prisoner he be in the bright daylight,
He is lord in the dark green wood.

10. For ghosts unseen crept in between,
And when our songs flowed free,
Sang discords in an undertone,
And marred the harmony;
"The past is ours, not yours," they said;
"The waves that beat the shore,
Though like the same are not the same,
Ah, never, nevermore."

11. Reformers all call it a poisonous weed,
 They class it with brandy and gin,
 Physicians, too, tell of diseases 'twill breed,
 And ministers preach of the sin.

27. EXERCISE.—Tell which of the following sentences are simple, which complex, and which compound; tell also the kind of clauses, and mention the connectives.

1. When I die, put near me something that has loved the light, and had the sky above it always.

2. In the preface to his collected works, De Quincey has fully defined his own position and claim to distinction.

3. While William of Orange lived, he was the guiding star of a whole brave nation; and when he died, the little children cried in the streets.

4. The place where shining souls have passed imbibes a grace beyond mere earth.

5. The way was long, the wind was cold,
 The minstrel was infirm and old;
 His withered cheek and tresses gray
 Seemed to have known a better day.

6. With smoking axle hot with speed, with steeds of fire and steam,
 Wide-waked Today leaves Yesterday behind him like a dream;
 Still, from the hurrying train of Life, fly backward far and fast
 The milestones of the fathers, the landmarks of the past.

7. "To do the best for yourself is finally to do the best for others," said the lecturer on political economy.

8. To him who in the love of nature holds communion with her visible forms, she speaks a various language.

9. The bravest are the tenderest, the loving are the daring.

10. Death is the end of life; then why should life all labor be?

SENTENTIAL ANALYSIS.

ANALYSIS OF SIMPLE SENTENCES.

28. The Meaning of "Analysis."—The word *analysis* means "a taking apart"; it is the opposite of *synthesis*, "a putting together." With regard to sentences, analysis is any scheme of representing the relations and functions of the words, phrases, and clauses that are joined in sentences.

This is usually done by means of diagrams, and of these, many systems have been devised by different authors.

29. Sentences Should Not Be Dismembered in Analysis.—The most serious objection that has been urged against analysis by diagrams is that nearly all methods of analysis so separate the sentential elements that the student is unable to put them together again. This objection is obviated in the scheme that will now be explained.

30. Subject and Predicate.—The *subject* is enclosed in marks of parenthesis, (); the *predicate* is enclosed in brackets, []. The marks of parenthesis and the brackets used in a principal clause should be heavier than those used in subordinate clauses. When the subject or any other element is to be represented as understood, the fact is indicated by means of a *cross*, X, or a *caret*, ^.

(Birds) [fly]. (^) [Make] haste. (X) [Tell] ^ me your secret of success. Some mute inglorious (Milton) here [may rest]. (Let no one ignorant of geometry enter here) [was inscribed] above the entrance.

31. Predicate Complements.—That a *noun* or a *pronoun* is the *object of a verb* is indicated by two parallel lines below it, . If this object is a phrase or a clause, the parallels are extended to include it.

(They) [counted] the stars. My (sister) [means] to return. (He) earnestly [desired] to be thought honest. The (watchman) [cried], "Midnight, and Cornwallis is taken." "I cannot sing the old songs." [said] the young (lady).

A *predicate noun* or *pronoun* is denoted by two parallel lines above it, and a *predicate adjective* by a straight line above a wavy line, ~~~~~. The lines denoting a predicate adjective may be either above or below the adjective.

The (boy) [was] assuredly a gentleman. (Cherries) [are] ripe. The (roses) [were] in bloom. The battle(ship) [was] about to be tested. ("What will he do with it?") [was] the question. (They) [seemed] very tired.

32. Modifying Elements.—A modifier is connected by an arrow with the element it modifies.

(He) [was] a manly, intelligent boy. Here *boy* is the *predicate noun*.

My (dog) [is] by no means vicious. *Vicious* is the *predicate adjective*.

(Liberty), within due limits, [is] an inherent right of all men.

Right is the *predicate noun*, and denotes the same thing as *liberty*—is only another name for the subject.

33. Independent Elements and Connectives.—Independent elements are indicated by a wavy line, ~~~~~, and connectives by the plus sign, +. If a connective has any other function, this fact may be indicated as already explained. The following analyses will illustrate these points:

The king, (he) [can do] no wrong.

(Jack), the Giant Killer, [performed] some wonderful exploits.

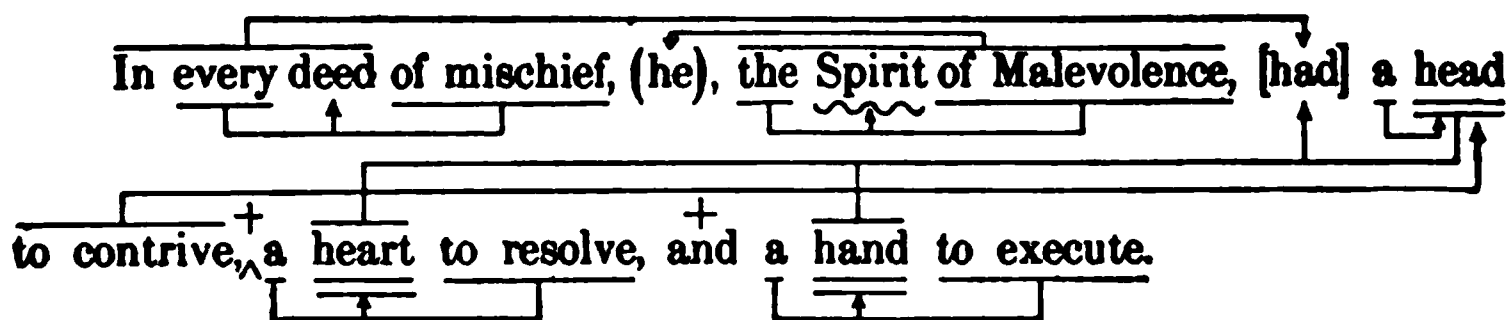
John, [can] (you) [explain] to me the true cause of the tides?

The (warp) + and (woof) of man's life [are] past + and future time.

[Did] (I) not, sir, carefully [explain] to you + what (I)[wanted]?

In the first sentence, *king* is independent by *pleonasm*; in the second, *Giant Killer* is independent by *apposition*; in the third, *John* is independent by *address*.

Besides being a connective, *what*, in the last sentence, is the object of *wanted*; *what I wanted* is the object of *did explain*.



ANALYSIS OF COMPLEX AND COMPOUND SENTENCES.

34. Mapping of Sentences.—Accompanying the minute analysis of every complex and every compound sentence there should be a diagram showing the plan of its clauses. This diagram should be constructed as follows:

1. An independent clause should have a *sign of equality* at the beginning and the end of a heavy horizontal line indicating the clause; thus,

= — — — = *The sun set and the moon rose.*

2. A subordinate clause should be represented by a light horizontal line, and should be separated from independent clauses and from other subordinate clauses by a *sign of inequality*. The opening of this sign should be turned toward the clause of which the dependent clause is an element.

= — — — = + > — — — *The moon rose before the sun set.*

+
— — — < = — — — = *If the day is fine, we shall go.*

+
— — — < = — — — = { + > — — —
+ *Before I leave I shall see you, if*
+ > — — —
you are at leisure and wish me to come.

3. If an independent clause is broken by one or more contained subordinate clauses, the fact should be shown as follows:

= — — — + > — — — < — — — = *The house that Jack built stood by the sea.*

Here the connective *that* is represented by the plus sign.

$= \text{---} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} + > \text{---} < \\ + \\ > \text{---} < \end{array} \right\} \text{---} =$ **The meadow *that* my father owned**

and in which the schoolhouse stood had a trout stream flowing through it.

$+ \text{---} < + \text{---} < = \text{---} + > \text{---} < \text{---} =$ **When we said that we had lost our way, the farmer's wife, with a smile that made us feel at home, invited us to stay to dinner.**

MODELS OF ANALYSIS.

35. If the student finds any of the following analyses difficult, he should review them frequently. He will see their difficulties clear away as he reconsiders them in the light of what he learns after first studying them. The ability to solve all doubtful questions concerning the functions and relations of sentential elements is the best evidence of thorough grammatical knowledge. Analysis of sentences, therefore, should be persisted in as the best possible preparation for understanding and writing good English. Before attempting the detailed analysis of a sentence, its general outline, showing the relation and kind of its clause elements, should be prepared.

1. $= \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} =$

Sydney Smith's (name) [is] a synonym of wit; ⁺but (he) [has left]
 behind him evidences of far higher powers.

2. $= \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} \text{---} =$

(Righteousness) [exalteth] a nation, ⁺but (sin) [is] a reproach to any people.

3. = ——— ——— = ——— =

Now [fades] the glimmering (landscape) on the sight,

And all the air a solemn (stillness) [holds].

NOTE.—The author's meaning may have been that *air holds stillness*, or it may have been the reverse, as in the diagram.

4. = ——— ——— = ——— = + > ———

(I) then [let] myself down and () [swam] across the channel

(which) [lay] between the ship and the sands.

5. = ——— = ——— = + > ———

(He) [spoke] of Burns: (men) rude and rough

[Pressed] round to hear the praise of one

Whose (heart) [was made] of manly, simple stuff.

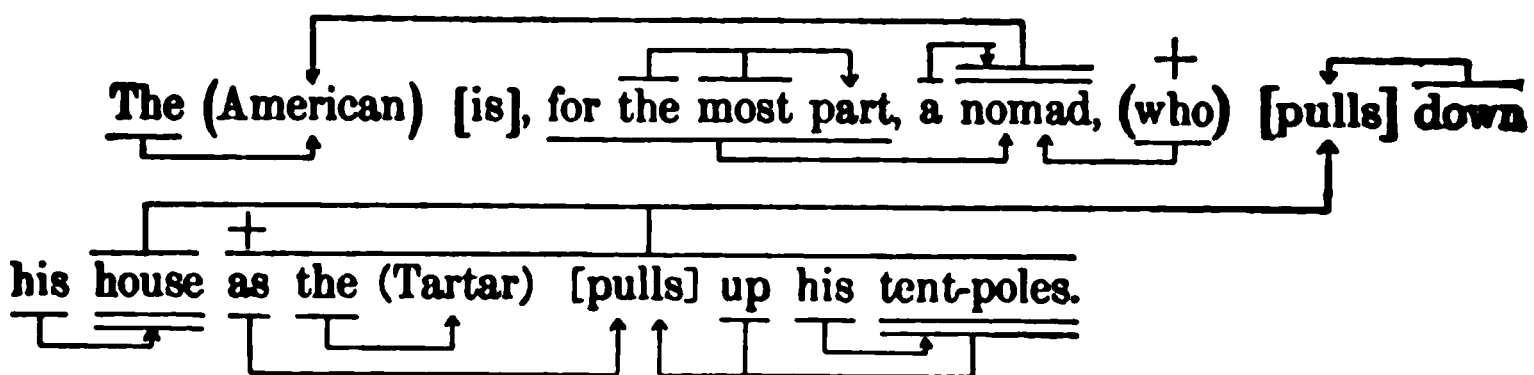
6. = ——— = + > ~~~~~ + = ——— =

(It) [is] the ancient feeling of the human heart, that (knowledge)

[is] better than (riches) ; and (it) [is] deeply and sacredly true.

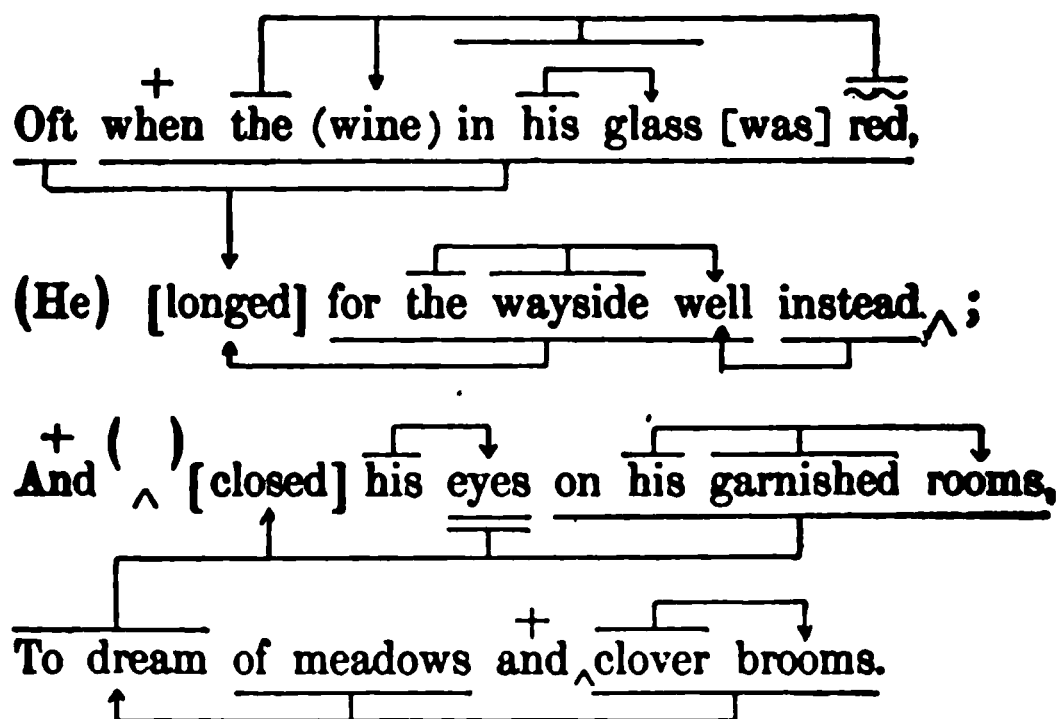
Riches is the subject of a clause of which the verb and predicate adjective, *are better*, are understood. This clause is a modifier of the meaning of the adjective *better*.

7. = — = + = — = + > —



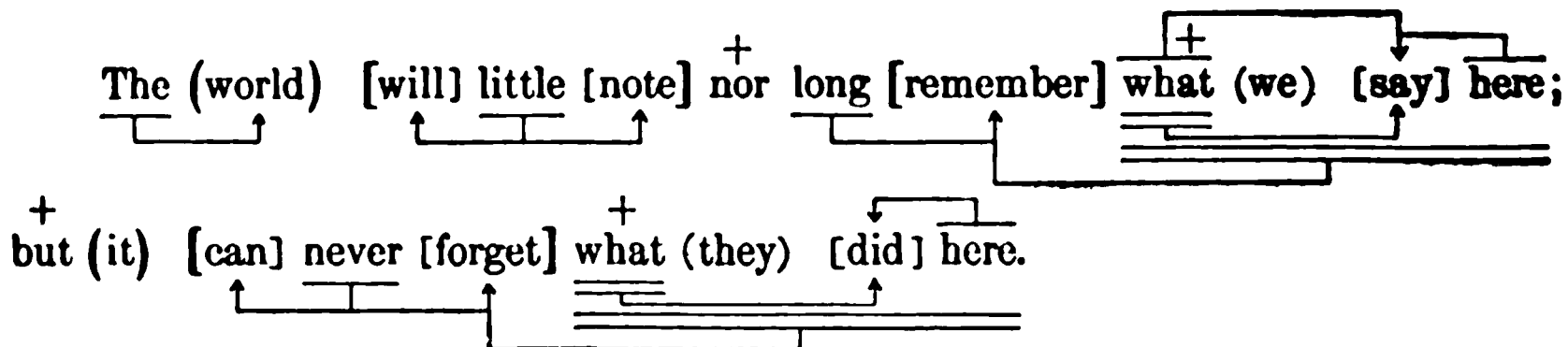
The connective *who* = *and he*; so that the first and second clauses are independent, and the sentence is *compound*.

8. + < = — = — =



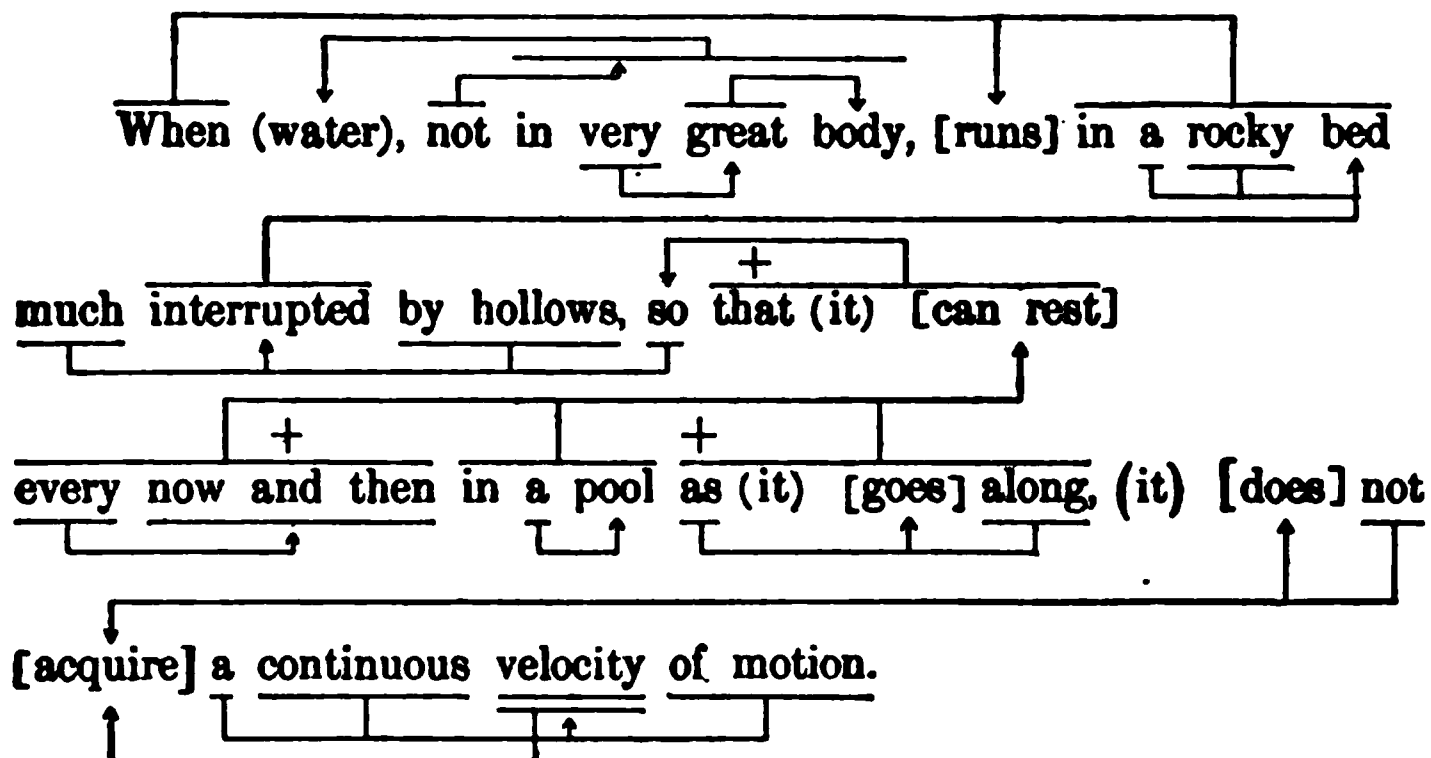
Instead has *of the wine* understood after it. This word is in reality a prepositional phrase, *in stead*, written as one word. There are many such; as, *indeed*, *aboard*, *astern*, *towards*, etc. When so written, they are commonly used as *adverbs*.

9. = — } + > — = — + > — =

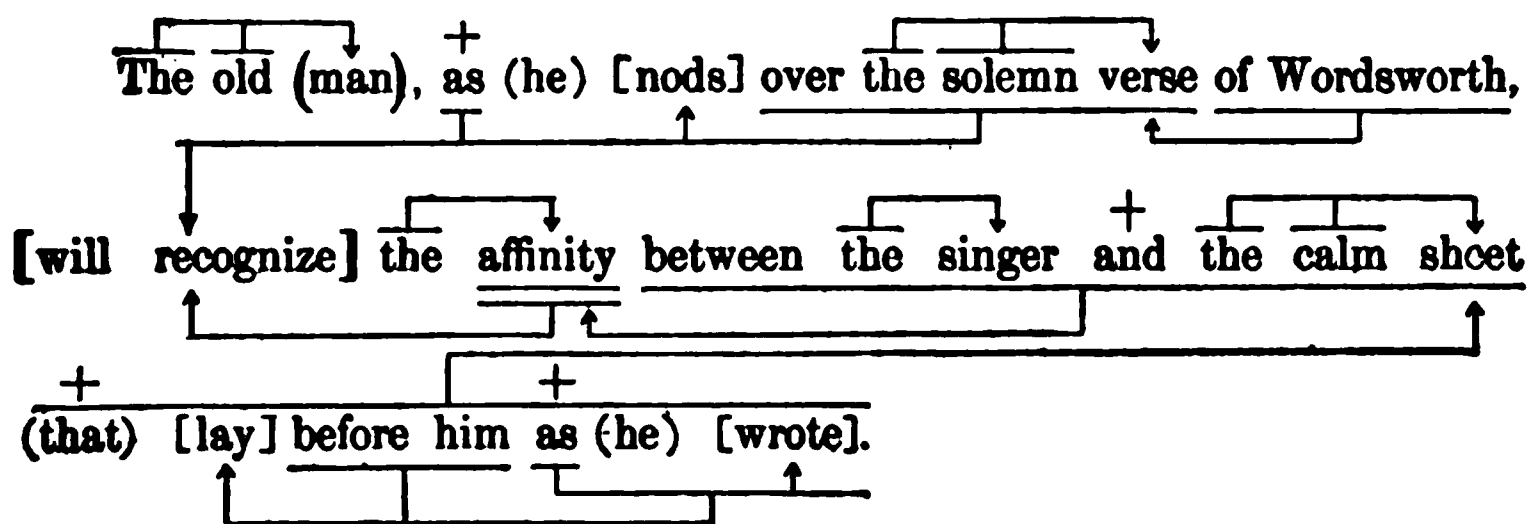


The first *what* is the object of *say* — *we say what*; the second is the object of *did* — *they did what*. In like manner, *what we say here* is the object of *remember*, and *what they did here* is the object of *can forget*.

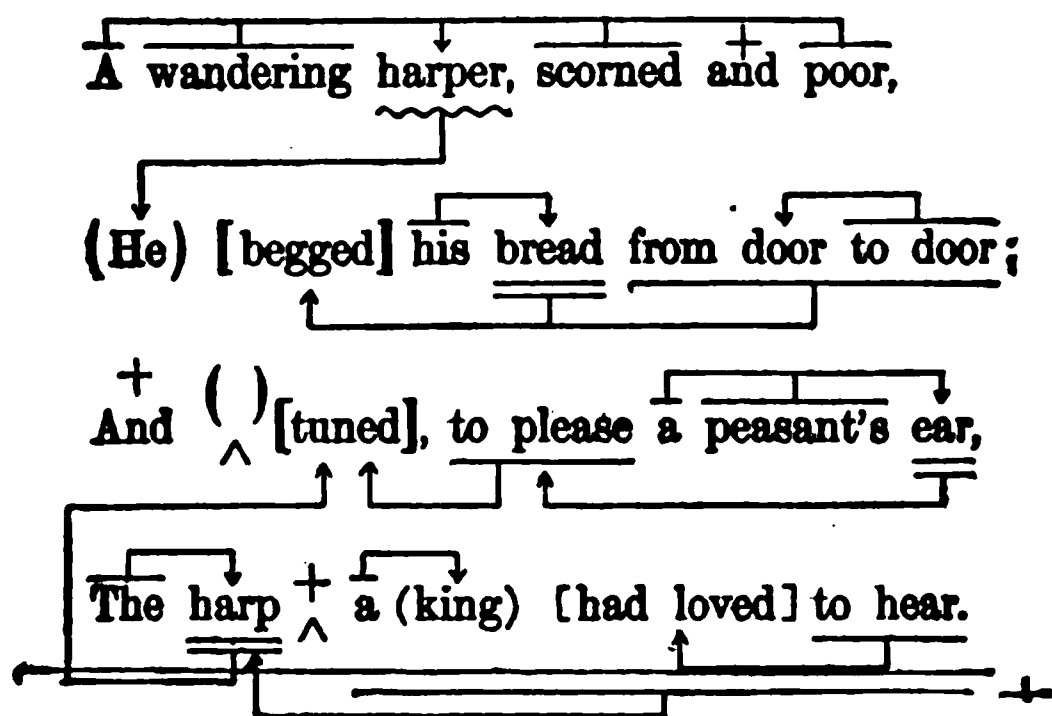
10. $+> \text{---} +> \text{---} +> \text{---} <= \text{---} =$

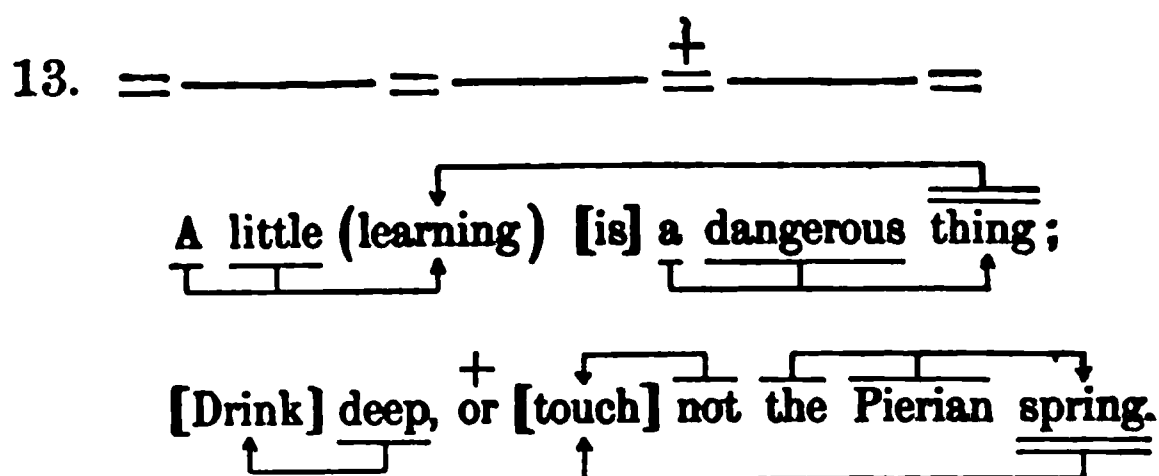


11. $= \text{---} +> \text{---} < \text{---} = +> \text{---} +> \text{---}$

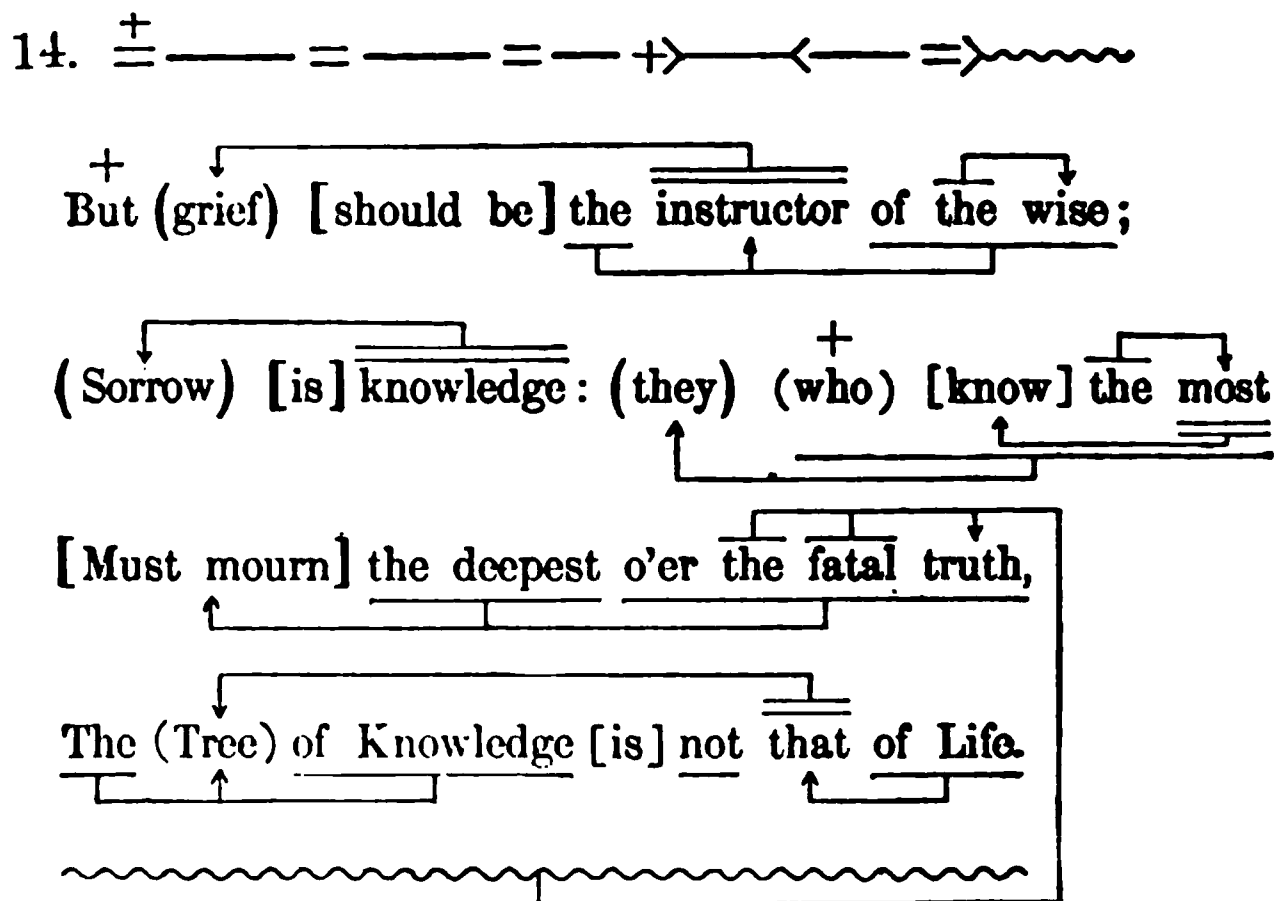


12. $= \text{---} = \text{---} = +> \text{---}$





Deep is usually an adjective. Here it is an *adverb*, unless the meaning is that after the drinking, the lowered surface of the liquid is *deep* below the top of the vessel from which the drink is taken.



36. EXERCISE.—Make clause outlines and detailed diagrams for the following sentences:

1. Indian summer is caused by the decay or slow combustion of the leaves.
2. We read of the age of stone, of gold, and of iron; the world is now entering the age of electricity.
3. I am monarch of all I survey, my right there is none to dispute; From the center all round to the sea, I am lord of the fowl and the brute.
4. If you should talk to him of Jacob's ladder, he would ask how many rounds it had.
5. Habit is the memory of the bodily organs.

6. A little child will place a shell to his ear and will hear in it the roar of the distant ocean.

7. It is not linen you are wearing out, but human creatures' lives.

8. Roll on, thou deep and dark blue ocean, roll;
 Ten thousand fleets sweep over thee in vain.

9. Upon this hint I spake;
 She loved me for the dangers I had passed,
 And I loved her that she did pity them.

10. And my soul from out that shadow that lies floating on the floor,
 Shall be lifted nevermore.

11. On a lone barren isle, where the wild roaring billows
 Assail the stern rock, and the loud tempests rave,
 The hero lies still, where the dew-dropping willows
 Like fond weeping mourners lean over his grave.

12. The reward for discharging one duty is the power to perform another.

13. The unwearied sun from day to day
 Does his Creator's power display,
 And publishes to every land
 The works of an Almighty hand.

14. If you wish information and improvement from the knowledge of others, and at the same time express yourself as firmly fixed in your present opinions, modest, sensible men, who do not love disputation, will probably leave you undisturbed in possession of your error.

15. He had some ingenious men among his friends, who amused themselves by writing little pieces for this paper, which gained it credit and made it more in demand, and these gentlemen often visited us.

16. Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears;
 I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.
 The evil that men do lives after them;
 The good is oft interred with their bones.

17. "Good-bye" is only a shortened form of "God be with you."

18. Self-reverence, self-knowledge, self-control,
 These three alone lead life to sovereign power.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 3.)

THE PARTS OF SPEECH.

THE NOUN—ITS SUBDIVISIONS.

1. Classes of Nouns.—Any word or expression, whether long or short, that is used in speech or writing as the *name* of anything, is a **noun**.

Nouns are divided into *two great classes*:

- | | |
|------------------|------------------|
| 1. COMMON NOUNS. | 2. PROPER NOUNS. |
|------------------|------------------|
-

COMMON NOUNS.

2. Generic, or Class Names.—Most of the nouns in our language are **class** names; that is, names applied *in common* or in general to things of the same kind. The word *common* is derived from two words meaning “bound together.” The things denoted by a common noun are united or *bound together* into one group by certain likenesses—certain common qualities. Thus, the word *boy* is not a name given to one particular thing and to no other; it is a name of any one of a great *genus*, or *class* composed of millions of objects that are alike in certain particulars. These class, or *generic* names are *common nouns*.

Definition.—*A common noun is a noun used to name a class of things.*

3. Classes of Common Nouns.—Common nouns have been variously subdivided, but all of them may be included under two great classes, as follows:

I. *Names of Things Sensible.*—This class comprises the names of substances that are material, and are, therefore, capable of being perceived by the senses; as, *tree, horse, sound, brightness, sourness, weight, roughness, odor, fragrance.*

II. *Names of Things Rational.*—This group includes the class names of all things that are merely *conceived* or *thought of* as existing, and cannot be recognized by the direct aid of any of the senses; as, *goodness, truth, absence, nearness, mind, thought, loss, fear, regret.*

Some of the nouns belonging in these classes have been grouped as follows:

1. *Collective Nouns.*—These are sometimes called *nouns of multitude*, because they denote many things united and thought of as in one group; as, *army, jury, congress, flock, nation, tribe, regiment, family.*

2. *Abstract Nouns.*—These are words that name *qualities* considered apart from the objects that have the qualities, conditions, or states—without notice of the things in which the qualities belong; as, *redness, drowsiness, fatigue, keenness.* Some abstract nouns are words that name *relations* independently of the things related; as, *nearness, superiority, promptitude, brevity, area.* These nouns are so called because they name something *drawn away* or *abstracted* from the real things that have the quality, state, or relation. Thus, we may think about *length* or *color* or *honesty* or *distance* or *sadness* without considering with attention any sensible objects that have such qualities. Other examples are *rudeness, solidity, brevity, reason, beauty, absence, forgetfulness, roundness, silence, emptiness, quality, number, steadiness.*

3. *Verbal Nouns.*—Some words that are made from verbs are used to name *actions*, just as *tree* and *moon* name *real things.*

Walking is better exercise than *riding*. *My having been arrested* counted against me. *Seeing* is *believing*. *Sewing, cooking, and dressmaking* are now taught in some schools.

Verbal nouns are really abstract nouns, for they name action *apart from* the actor, just as *goodness* is the name of something thought of as separated from an object that is *good*.

4. Other Nouns Regarded as Common.—A common noun has been defined as a name applied to a class of things, but there are many nouns that do not name classes and yet are usually regarded as common nouns. Such are:

1. The names of the **sciences**; as, *chemistry, astronomy, physics*.

2. The names of **diseases**; as, *cholera, pneumonia, scarlatina*.

3. The names of **drugs and chemicals**; as, *quinine, bromine, phenacetin*.

Indeed, there is much confusion among authors in classifying nouns, but it is a matter of little practical consequence. The only really important matter is that the student shall be able to know with certainty that a certain word, on account of the work it does, is a noun.

PROPER NOUNS.

5. Nearly all the objects that we think and talk about belong in some class or other, and when we wish to refer to them, their class names are generally definite enough. If for any reason it is necessary to specify more particularly a thing that belongs to one of these classes, we may do so by pointing to it, or by joining modifying words to its class name. Thus, we may say, *that large red apple, the tall man with black hair, the largest city in the world*. But this is not always satisfactory. We may wish to send a letter, money, or other object to some man living and moving about among millions of other men in some great city. It is often necessary to distinguish one thing very clearly

from every other in its class. This can be done better than in any other way by giving it a name of its own; as, *Boston*, *July*, *Henry Clay*, *William McKinley*. Such names are **proper nouns**; they are so called from the Latin word *proprius*, meaning "one's own." A proper noun is usually set apart for the purpose of naming *one person* or *other object*; and if its work is to be done perfectly, the name must be used for no other purpose. A common noun distinguishes one class from every other class, while a proper noun is intended to distinguish one thing from every other thing.

Definition.—A proper noun is a noun used as a special or an individual name.

6. Proper Nouns Used as Common Nouns.—A noun that is strictly proper cannot be preceded by *a* or *an*, for these modifiers imply that the word before which one of them is placed names a class of things. Thus, *a Clay*, *a Lincoln*, *a Boston*, denotes that there is a class of *Clays*, of *Lincolns*, and of *Bostons*. When preceded by *a* or *an*, these words should be called common nouns.

The following sentences illustrate this usage; and the nouns, although really common, retain their capitals:

A Daniel come to judgment. Some mute inglorious Milton nere may rest. He is a veritable Hercules.

INFLECTIONS OF THE NOUN.

7. Definition of Inflection.—The word *inflection* is one that is much used in grammar. It comes from two Latin words that mean "in" and "a bending"; it denotes that something is *bent* or changed from one form or condition into another. Thus, we speak of the *inflections of the voice*, meaning its changes from certain tones to others that are higher or lower. As used in grammar, *inflection* signifies those changes in the form of a word that come from changes in its use or meaning. Generally, but not always, inflections are

variations or additions at the end of a word; and the simplest or most commonly used form of a word may be called its *inflectional base*.

The following will illustrate what is meant by the inflection of nouns:

Uninflected.—The *boy* ate. The *child* ran. The *mouse* plays. The *goose* flies.

Inflected.—The *boys* ate. The *children* ran. The *mice* play. The *geese* fly.

The { <i>boy's</i> } home.	The { <i>child's</i> } money.
{ <i>boys'</i> }	{ <i>children's</i> }
The { <i>mouse's</i> } fur.	The { <i>goose's</i> } wings.
{ <i>mice's</i> }	{ <i>geese's</i> }

Definition.—*An inflection of a word is a change in its form made in consequence of a difference in its meaning or use.*

8. Nouns Have Three Kinds of Inflections.—Nouns are inflected for three purposes:

1. *To Denote Number*.—That is, to show whether a noun signifies *one* of the objects it names, or *more than one* of them; as, *horse, horses; church, churches; ox, oxen; die, dice*; etc.

2. *To Denote Sex*.—Many nouns have one form for *males* and another for *females*. This distinction is not always made by a real inflection or change of form; but when it is so made, the *inflectional base*—the uninflected form—denotes the *male* sex, and the inflected, or changed form denotes the *female* sex.

Thus, *lion, actor, count, marquis, negro*, are uninflected forms, and they name males; *lioness, actress, countess, marchioness, negress*, by means of inflection, name females.

3. *To Denote Case*.—This is the relation in which a noun or any substitute for a noun stands to other words in a sentence. While there are several different relations that nouns may have in sentences, and therefore several cases, there is only one case that is shown by inflection. This is the one that denotes *possession*; as, *John's hat*. There are several different relations that are shown by this case. Among them are *origin*; as, *the sun's rays*: *attachment* or *adjunct*; as, *man's duty, the earth's weight*: etc.

9. Another Function of Nouns.—When a noun is so used in a sentence as to name or denote the *speaker*, the *person spoken to*, or the *person spoken of*, it is sometimes said to be inflected for *person*. This, however, is not an inflection at all, for an inflection is a *change of form*. This function of nouns is shown by other words in the sentence—the *context*. The noun itself remains unchanged, whether it denotes the speaker, the person addressed, or the person or thing spoken about in the sentence. Thus,

Speaking.—I, *John*, saw it.

Addressed.—*John*, come here.

Spoken of.—I met *John*.

For convenience, however, it is usual to say that nouns have *four* inflections.

10. Special Names of Inflections.—Of the eight parts of speech, five either really have inflection or are said to have it. When some or all of the inflections of any part of speech are arranged in an orderly way, the collection has, for that particular class, a special name.

1. *Nouns* and *pronouns* have **declension**—we *decline* them.

2. *Adjectives* and *adverbs* have **comparison**—we *compare* them.

3. *Verbs* have **conjugation**—we *conjugate* them.

The remaining parts of speech are *not inflected*; they have forms that never vary whatever change may occur in the way they are used in sentences. They are said to be **uninflected** or **invariable**.

11. Kinds of Change in Inflected Words.—There are three methods of grammatical inflection:

1. *By Suffixes*.—As, *boy*, *boy's*; *ox*, *oxen*; *god*, *goddess*; *child*, *children*. This is the method most in use in inflecting English words. Inflection by suffixes often requires some change in the *inflectional base*. Thus, *tiger*, *tigress*; *duke*, *duchess*; *calf*, *calves*.

2. *By Change Within*.—This method, by change within the *body* of the word, is much less common than the first,

and it occurs most frequently among certain verbs; as *run, ran; sing, sang, sung*. Of nouns, we have examples in *man, men; mouse, mice; tooth, teeth; foot, feet*.

A combination of the first and second methods is frequent; as *slay, slew, slain; brother, brethren*.

3. *By Different Words*.—As, *witch, wizard; boy, girl; am, is, was; I, we; he goat, she goat; man servant, maid servant*.

As has been said, this is not inflection; but, as a matter of mere convenience, grammarians, with but few exceptions, treat it as a real inflection.

NUMBER IN NOUNS.

12. Definition of Number.—Whether a noun means one, or more than one, of the objects it names, is known from one or both of two facts:

1. Its form; as, *men, houses, trees*.
2. Its use; as, *The sheep is black. The sheep are mine. That fish is dead. These fish are salmon*.

Definition.—*The number of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes one or more than one.*

Definition.—*The singular number of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes one.*

Definition.—*The plural number of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes more than one.*

13. Rules for Forming the Plural of Nouns.—Many nouns are arbitrary in the formation of their plurals, and for this reason cannot be brought under the operation of any rule. The following rules, however, include most English nouns:

I. *General Rule.*—*Most nouns form their plural by adding s or es to the singular.*

star, stars; box, boxes; church, churches.

The ear is nearly always a sure guide in determining whether *s* should be added or whether *es* is required. The following cases should be noted:

II. *Special Rules*.—1. *Nouns ending (a) in s, sh, x, z, ch soft, and some ending (b) in o after a consonant, are pluralized by adding es; as, mass, masses; lash, lashes; sex, sexes; topaz, topazes.*

Some examples of (b) are *calico, tornado, torpedo, innuendo, virago, mulatto, stiletto, wo, potato, mango, cargo, echo, hero, negro, embargo, buffalo*, etc. Many words of this kind take only s; as, *canto, junto, grotto, solo, quarto, tyro, octavo, bravo, nuncio, embryo, portico*, etc.

2. *Nouns in y preceded by a vowel add s; as, chimney, volley, whiskey, money, key, play, viceroy, alley, monkey, guy*, etc.

3. *Nouns ending in y preceded by a consonant change y into i and then add es; as, fly, ally, city*, etc.

4. *Some nouns ending in f or fe change the f into v, and then add es; as, thief, wife, life, wolf, sheaf, beef, loaf, calf, half, leaf, elf, knife, shelf, self*, etc.; *wharf* and *staff* have in the plural *wharves* or *wharfs*, and *staves* or *staffs*. Others in f and fe add s alone; as, *fife, gulf*, etc.

5. *Compounds generally pluralize the modified part; as, brothers-in-law, corner-stones, wagon-loads*, etc. When the elements of the compound are closely associated, the s is put at the end; as, *graveyards, pineapples, forget-me-nots, spoonfuls*.

6. *Letters, numerals, and arbitrary characters are generally pluralized by taking 's; as, 9's, 11's, + 's, √ 's.*

7. The plurals of *proper nouns* are generally formed *regularly*; as, *the Dr. Browns*. But we may say, *the Messrs. Howard, the Doctors King, the two Miss Joneses*, or *the two Misses Jones*. The names of two or more persons each of whom has the same title are pluralized thus: *Generals Grant and Sherman; the Misses Jones, Smith, and Brown* (if unmarried); *Mesdames Jones, Smith, and Brown* (if married); *Messrs. Bray and Martin*.

14. EXERCISE.—1. Use in sentences the plurals of the following
money, dwarf, hero, tomato, gas, roof, checker-board, penny,
these.

2. Write five sentences each containing a noun shown by its *form* to be plural.

3. Write five sentences each containing a noun shown by its *use* to be plural.

4. Find out which of the following are singular and which plural: *news, wages, politics, means, riches, alms, measles, victuals, scales, dregs, scissors, committee, audience.*

5. Write the plural of *handful, knight-templar, rose-tree, mother-superior, court-martial, Miss Alexander, postmaster-general, Mrs. Ewing.*

GENDER IN NOUNS.

15. How Words Denote Sex.—The distinction of *sex*, whether real or imagined in the things denoted by nouns, is made, if made at all, in the following ways:

1. *By the form, or by the meaning, of words; as, empress, girl, ruffian, witch, woman.*

2. *By the use made of other words, or by the context; as,*
When the *sun* exerted *his* power, the *moon* shed *her* beams in vain.

Animals alone have sex in the usual sense; and with the exception of the highest classes of these, their sex is not generally regarded as of sufficient importance to be noted in language. The young of human kind, and even adults, are often spoken of exactly as if they were without sex. Thus, we say:

The *child* had finished *its* sleep. The *members* of the party enjoyed *themselves* at the picnic.

16. Sex and Gender.—The student must carefully distinguish between *sex* and *gender*. The former is a characteristic of *living beings*, the latter of *words*. Thus, the word *man* has **gender**, and the object named by the word has **sex**.

Definition.—*The gender of a word is that form or use of it by which it denotes sex.*

Definition.—*The masculine gender is that form or use of a word by which it denotes the male sex.*

Definition.—*The feminine gender is that form or use of a word by which it denotes the female sex.*

Definition.—*The neuter gender is that form or use of a word by which it denotes the absence of sex.*

Definition.—*The common gender is that form or use of a word that renders the sex indefinite or uncertain.*

17. Gender by Form or Meaning.—There are two methods by which gender is denoted by *form*:

1. *By Gender Suffixes.*—The endings *ess, en, inc, trix, ster*, and *a* usually denote that the word is of the *feminine* gender. When these suffixes are added to the masculine form, some modification in spelling is usually necessary.

Masculine.—*Baron, actor, master, executor, hero, signor.*

Feminine.—*Baroness, actress, mistress, executrix, heroine, signora.*

2. *By Gender Prefixes.*—By prefixes or separate modifiers, such as *man, woman, male, female, he, she*, expressions denoting gender are formed.

Masculine.—*Man servant, cock robin, he goat, menfolk.*

Feminine.—*Maid servant, hen robin, she goat, womenfolk.*

By their *meaning*, without respect to form, words may denote sex.

Masculine.—*Man, monk, nephew, husband, wizard, uncle.*

Feminine.—*Woman, nun, niece, wife, witch, aunt.*

18. Gender by Use or Context.—There are two principal varieties of this method of denoting gender:

1. Things having sex are often denoted by words that do not indicate any particular sex. In such cases, other words in the sentence may show the sex.

The *elephant* performed **his** task. The *robin* attacked **her** enemies. The *governor* married one of *his* clerks.

2. Things without sex may be *personified*; that is, they may be spoken of as if they were persons. This is often done in poetry. Objects characterized by energy, strength, great size, or violence are represented as *masculine*; those conceived as tender, refined, weak, beautiful, or gentle are treated as *feminine*. Thus,

Masculine.—The *sun*, the *ocean*, *winter*, a *flood*, a *river* during a flood, a *mountain*, the various *vices*, actions characterized by rage, energy, or violence, such as *murder*, *war*, *riot*.

Feminine.—*Spring*, a *ship*, a *balloon*, the *moon*, many of the more delicate and beautiful *flowers*, such as the *lily*, *violet*, *rose*, etc., *cities* and *countries*.

19. Omission of Feminine Distinctions.—There is an increasing tendency to omit the distinctions that mark the feminine gender. This is especially the case with prefixes and suffixes. Thus, we apply to both males and females such words as *servant*, *doctor*, *artist*, *poet*, *clerk*, *executor*, *minister*, *citizen*.

Indeed, the inflection for gender is of very little importance in grammar; and, with the lapse of time, it is being more and more ignored. As illustrations of the truth of this statement, it may be remarked that most grammarians reject the *common* gender, and many, the *neuter* gender. The need for them has been much diminished since *parsing* has ceased to be regarded as an important grammatical exercise.

20. Gender of Proper Names. There are many pairs of proper names similar in form for the two sexes; as, *Julius*, *Julia*; *Charles*, *Caroline* or *Charlotte* (Latin, *Carolus*, *Carolina*); *William* (German, *Wilhelm*), *Wilhelmina*; *Henry*, *Henrietta*.

21. EXERCISE —1. Write the feminine forms of *abb t.*, *gander*, *Joseph*, *master*, *bachelor*, *marquis*, *John*, *count*, *heir*, *testator*, *Paul*, *sir*, *czar*, *sultan*, *horse*, *king*, *Augustus*, *carl*, *drake*, *coll hart*, *Lucius* (Luke), *huck*, *ram*, *shepherd*, *mis*, *monk*, *frar*, *widower*, *priest*, *Cornelius*, *lad*, *bridegroom*, *beau*, *merman*, *male*, *peacock*, *landlord*, *tiger*, *Francis*.

2. Compose sentences personifying the following words in such way as to show gender *Rome*, *Columbia*, "*Maine*" (battle-ship), *Spain*, *ocean*, *Tiber*, *earth*, *moon*, *sun*, *winter*, *May*, *December*, and the planets *Venus*, *Earth*, *Jupiter*, *Saturn*, *Mars*.

PERSON IN NOUNS.

Definition.—*Persons in grammar are those relations and uses of words by which the speaker, the hearer, and the person or thing addressed are distinguished from one another.*

Definition.—*The first person is that relation or use of a word by which it denotes the speaker.*

I, *William McKinley*, do hereby appoint, etc. We, the *under-signed*, etc.

Definition.—*The second person is that relation or use of a word by which it denotes the person or thing addressed.*

Thou, *God*, seest me. Ye *crag*s and *peak*s, I'm with you once again.*

Definition.—*The third person is that relation or use of a word by which it denotes the person or thing spoken of.*

The *people* told the *sexton* and the *sexton* tolled the *bell*.

22. Person of a Subject Noun.—Strictly a noun used as the subject of a verb is in the third person, even though it names the *speaker* or the *hearer*. For one may speak about himself or his hearer as if each were a third party and absent.

Thus, Brown may say of himself, “If *Brown* is summoned, he will surely go.” “Is my old *friend* [addressing him], the *doctor*, still enjoying life?” Here *Brown*, *friend*, and *doctor* are in the third person.

23. EXERCISE.—Tell the person of each italicized word:

1. *Comrades*, leave *me* here a little, while as yet 'tis early *morn*:
Leave *me* here, and when *you* want *me*, sound upon the *bugle-horn*.
2. O, *mother*, your *boy* that speaks to *you* now is so sorry; forgive *him*, and *he* will never vex his dear *mother* in the same *way* again.
3. We are such *stuff*
As *dreams* are made of, and our little *life*
Is rounded with a *sleep*.
4. And *I* have loved *thee*, *ocean*; and my *joy*
Of youthful *sports* was on thy *breast* to be
Borne like thy *bubbles* onward; from a *boy*
I wantoned with thy *breakers*—*they* to *me*
Were a *delight*; * * * * *
- A Who noble *ends* by noble *means* obtains,
Or, failing, smiles in *cage* or in *chains*,
Like good *Aurelius* let *him* reign, or bleed
Like *Socrates*, that *man* is great indeed.

CASE IN NOUNS.

24. Meaning of the Word “Case.”—The student has already learned that a noun or a pronoun may be related in a number of different ways to other words in a sentence; that is, it may fill various uses or functions. For example, a noun may be the *subject*, the *predicate noun*, the *object* of a verb or of a preposition, and it may fill other offices. These several uses of nouns and pronouns in helping to express thought make up the **cases** in grammar.

Among all the cases of English nouns, there is found only one real inflection or change from the ordinary simple form of the word—from the *inflectional base*. This is in the form by which ownership, origin, or adjunct is denoted; such as, a *boy's* hat, the *girl's* story, *Rome's* greatness. Of the case relations of the noun, this is the one relation that may be known by its *form*; all other cases must be inferred from the way the noun is *used*—its relation to other words.

The word *case* is from the Latin *casus*, which means “a falling.” In that language there were formerly *seven* cases: of these, there was one that depended for its form on no other. This was the *nominative*, the form that merely *names*. Since this case form could stand alone, as if *erect* and independent, while the others appeared only in sentential structure and in dependence on other words, the nominative was called the *erect* or *upright* case (*casus rectus*). From it the others—the oblique cases—were formed; they *fell* from it—were *cases* of it. From this notion that the other cases *decline* (*lean away*) from the nominative, came the word **declension**, which in grammar means an orderly arrangement showing the nominative or *erect* form and the *oblique* or *declined* cases.

In the sense that *case* is a *falling*, the nominative is not a case at all; but this curious use of the word *case* has been extended in grammar to include all the relational forms and uses of nouns and pronouns.

Definition.—*Case in grammar is that form or use of a noun or pronoun by which its relation to other words in a sentence is shown.*

25. Number of Cases.—Most grammarians consider that English nouns have *three* cases: the **nominative**, the **possessive**, and the **objective**. These include all the functions or relations—about a *dozen*—that are filled by nouns and pronouns in English sentences.

26. The Nominative Case.—The word *nominative* means “naming.” The *singular* of every noun in the nominative case is the form that is always *named* in a dictionary where the word is to be defined, or where we merely mention the name; as, *man, tree, mountain*. From this singular nominative, the plural nominative is formed by the rules already given. Thus, *men, trees, mountains*, are the forms of plural nominatives.

But since the objective forms of nouns are exactly like the nominative forms, both in the singular and in the plural, these cases must be recognized, not by their *forms*, but by their *work* or function in sentences.

The most frequent and important use of the noun is in the relation of *subject* to a verb that *predicates*; that is, those verb forms that are called *finite*—the verb forms that state, question, or command.

[There are certain forms, *not finite*, called *infinitives, participles*, and *verbal nouns*; such are, *to see, to be seen, to have seen, having seen, seeing*, etc. These *verbals* are not used by themselves to predicate, but they do duty as adjectives, adverbs, and nouns.]

When a noun stands in a sentence as the subject of a finite verb, it is said to be in the nominative case. The nominative subject of a verb is the word that answers the question *Who?* or *What?*

The **boy** *can swim*. *Who* can swim? The **boy**. The word *boy* is, then, the subject of the sentence.

Does the earth rotate? Does *what* rotate? The **earth**.

All the **trains** *will have gone*. *What* will have gone? The **trains**.

Besides this important use of the nominative case, there are several others, which will be explained in the proper place.

Definition.—*The nominative case is the form or use of a word in the relation of subject of a finite verb.*

It should be understood that the nominative case, although defined above as if employed in only one way, has several other uses besides that of standing as the subject of a finite verb. These, however, are of much less importance than the use as subject, and are not of very frequent occurrence. They will all be considered in the proper place. (See Art. 31.)

Definition.—*The possessive case is the form or use of a word by which it denotes possession, origin, or adjunct.*

Possession.—The **girl's book**. The book belongs to the girl—is her property.

Origin.—The **sun's light**. The light has its *origin* in the sun. The **poet's rhyme**. The **sailor's story**.

Adjunct.—The **boy's height**. *Height* is a *quality* or an *adjunct* of a boy. The **earth's equator**. The **river's banks**.

27. Remarks on the Possessive Case.—Besides the three relations mentioned above, there are several others that are denoted by the possessive case. The possessive case being a real inflection, however, there is no difficulty in knowing the case by its *form*.

The inflected form is used *mostly* with the names of *living beings*. Thus, we may say, the *horse's* owner, but not, the *tree's* foliage; the *snail's* speed, but not, the *train's* speed; etc. For inanimate objects, it is better to use the uninflected noun with the preposition *of*; as, the *top* of the *tree*, the *owner* of the *land*, the *speed* of the *train*, etc.

We very frequently speak of inanimate things as if they were real living agencies; in other words, we *personify* them. In such cases the inflected form of the noun is to be preferred to the prepositional phrase.

The **torrent's fury**. The **storm's progress**. The **fire's hunger**.

There is, however, excellent authority for the use of the possessive case with the names of inanimate things.

In the above expressions a noun in the possessive case takes the place of a prepositional phrase, and the latter being in function an adjective, it is clear that a noun in the possessive case has the value of an adjective modifier.

Some nouns ending in **s**, **x**, **ce**, and **es** take only the apostrophe in the possessive singular, in order to avoid too many hissing sounds; as, *Moses'* laws, *Socrates'* death, for *Jesus'* sake, for *conscience'* sake, *Demosthenes'* safety, *Xerxes'* army, the *Sioux'* defence, *Bullions'* grammar, *Ganges'* side.

The possessive should be formed in the usual way unless the offensive sound is very noticeable.

Compound nouns add the sign of the possessive to the last element; as, *the Emperor of Germany's tour*, *Smith and Brown's store*. In the case of long compounds, it is, however, generally better to avoid such possessives. For example, we should prefer, *by the order of the commander-in-chief*, to, *the commander-in-chief's order*; *the tour made by the Emperor of Germany*, *the store owned by*, etc.

28. The Objective Case.—The objective case is so named because its most frequent use is in the relation of the object of a verb or a preposition. A noun or a pronoun used as the object of a verb names that which receives the action performed by some actor.

The boy *struck* the **dog**. The policeman *arrested* the **burglar**. The teacher *praised* her **pupils**.

When a noun or a pronoun is brought by a preposition into relation with some other word, the *relation* begins with the one word and ends with the other, very much as *action* begins with an *actor* and ends with that which *receives* the action. The preposition specifies and directs the *relation*, just as a verb specifies and directs the *action*. Hence, the word in which the relation that is specified and directed by a preposition ends, is in the objective case.

The object of a verb or of a preposition is the word that answers the question *Whom?* or *What?*

I *saw* the **teacher**. I saw *whom?* The **teacher**. *Teacher* is, therefore, the object of the verb *saw*.

Mary *crossed* the **ocean**. Mary crossed *what?* The **ocean**.

The boy *went* *with* his **father**. The boy went with *whom?* His **father**.

He *leans* *against* the **tree**. He leans against *what?* The **tree**.

There are some other uses of nouns and pronouns in which they are said to be in the objective case. These will be explained later. The foregoing are, however, the most frequent uses of the objective case, and are usually referred to in the definition of this case.

Definition.—*The objective case is the form or use of a word in the relation of object of a verb or of a preposition.*

29. Declension of Nouns.—The declension of a noun is an orderly arrangement of its cases in both the singular and the plural number.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>
Nominative	girl	girls	mouse	mice	Mary
Possessive	girl's	girls'	mouse's	mice's	Mary's
Objective	girl	girls	mouse	mice	Mary

30. EXERCISE.—Write expressions containing the possessive case singular of the proper nouns, and the same case in both numbers of the common nouns in the following list:

Thus, *the horse's strength, the horses' strength; D. Appleton & Co.'s publications.*

comrade	goose	deer	man servant	Jones the hatter
child	calf	robin	boy preacher	Cyrus the Great
lady	hero	fish	child wife	Claflin & Co.
fly	ox	witness	shipmaster	Grant and Lee
woman	mouse	brother	woman servant	Jack the Giant Killer
man	mother	thief	brother-in-law	John of Anjou
chief	wolf	self	aide-de-camp	Arnold the traitor

FUNCTIONS OF THE CASES.

31. Use of the Nominative Case.—The nominative case has five principal uses or functions in expressing thought.

1. *As Subject of a Finite Verb.*—

The teacher is sick. The horse drew the load. The soldier may have been killed.

2. *As Predicate Noun.*—The predicate noun always denotes the same person or thing as the subject.

The diamond is a precious stone. He seemed a scholar. Grant looked a hero. Jones was chosen speaker. She walks a queen.

In these sentences, the same person or thing is denoted by each of the following pairs of words: *diamond, stone; he, scholar; Grant, hero; Jones, speaker; she, queen*. The verb placed between each pair unites them so as to form an assertion.

Diamond is stone. Grant looked a hero.

3. *In Apposition With Another Nominative*.—This function of a noun is very much like that of an adjective—it is explanatory and modifying.

Grant, the general, ended the war. This is equivalent to *General Grant ended the war*, in which *general* is a modifier of *Grant*.

4. *As Independent*.—In this construction, the nominative fills the office for which it is named—its *nominating* or *naming* function. A word so used has no grammatical relation to other words. It stands in an independent relation and has no other use than merely to *name* some person or thing. This independence is of three varieties:

(a) *By Address*.—

And, *Saxon*, I am Roderick Dhu. Study your lessons, *children*.

(b) *By Exclamation*.—

Hope! It makes the heart sick. *Friendship!* There's no such thing.

(c) *By Pleonasm*.—Strictly speaking, any noun or pronoun that *overfills* a construction is *pleonastic*; for this is what the word means. But pleonasm is the mere *mention* of a noun or a pronoun, not in the way of address or exclamation, but as suggesting that about which the sentence treats more fully. It is a use for the sake of emphasis; the noun or pronoun is not the subject or object of a verb.

The sea, it is the greatest thing God ever made. *The boy,* oh, where was he? *Tears,* idle *tears,* I know not what they mean.

5. *As Absolute*.—This also is a kind of *independent* construction. It consists of a noun or a pronoun used with a *verb* to form a phrase that is usually the equivalent of a dependent clause. This phrase, although it is not a necessary part in the sentential structure, and may be

omitted, generally adds some modifying circumstance—it is a *modifier*.

Dawn *having appeared*, we departed. = *When dawn appeared* (or *At dawn*) we departed. Our **destination** *having been reached*, we went ashore. **Autumn** *coming on*, the nights grew colder. *Seeing* the multitude, he went up into a mountain.

Here *having appeared* modifies the meaning of *dawn* just as an ordinary adjective might do; *having been reached* is a modifier of *destination*; etc.

32. Use of the Possessive Case.—The possessive case is generally regarded as having but one function in grammar. This is to denote *possession* or some similar relation. Its real use is to *modify* the meaning of a noun or a pronoun; for, when we say *John's hat*, the effect produced upon the meaning of *hat* by the word *John's* is exactly similar to that which would be produced if *black* were used with *hat*.

33. Use of the Objective Case.—A word in the objective case may be used:

1. *As Object of a Verb.*—There are several varieties of the object complements of verbs.

(a) *Direct Object.*—This is the most frequently used form, and is very easy to recognize.

They *sang* a **hymn**. He *earned* **money**. We *saw* the **moon**.

(b) *Indirect Object.*—This use of a word is by many grammarians called the *dative* case, that is, the case of *giving*. It is generally equivalent to a prepositional phrase used as a modifier and consisting of a noun or pronoun preceded by *to* or *for*. More exactly, the indirect object, with *to* or *for* understood, forms an adverbial phrase modifying the meaning of the verb. It is not an *object* of the *verb*, but of an understood *preposition*.

They *taught* the **boy** arithmetic—that is, *to the boy*. I *bought* the **girl** a book—*for the girl*.

(c) *Appositive Object.*—A noun or a pronoun may have an appositive to explain or modify its meaning. As is the case with an *appositive* nominative, the explaining word and the word explained always denote the same person or thing.

He struck *John*, his **brother**. We visited *New York*, the metropolis of America. He killed the *fawn*, our **pet**, our **darling**. Paul appealed to *Rome*, the **mistress** of the world.

(d) *Factitive Object*.—The *factitive* object was long classed by grammarians as a mere *appositive object*; that is, an objective *placed near* the direct object to explain its meaning, a function very similar to that of an adjective. Thus, in the two expressions, *King Richard*, and, *Richard the king*, we have the word *king* first an *adjective* and then an *appositive noun*; but the works they do are very nearly the same.

Now, there are some verbs that are followed by *two* objectives, one of which is the *direct object*; the other names something that seems to be *made* by the action expressed by the verb. This is called the *factitive* or *made* object (from *facere*, “to make”), and, like an ordinary appositive, it *stands beside* the direct object to *modify* or *explain* it.

They made *him* **teacher**. The people elected *Washington* **president**. The convention appointed the *mayor* **chairman**.

Here *teacher* names that which results from the action expressed by *made*; etc.

The following diagrams will show the similarity of this construction to an ordinary appositive and to a predicate noun:

Factitive objective: (They) [chose] her queen.

Predicate noun: { (She) [was chosen] queen.
(She) [was] queen.

Appositive objective: (He) [showed] his weapon, a knife.

(e) *Adverbial Objective*.—Certain words denoting *time*, *measure*, *weight*, *distance*, *value*, etc. are used in the objective case to modify like *adverbs*.

We went *home* and stayed a *week*. He was six *feet* high. It cost a *dollar*. The hat is worth a *shilling*. The ship sailed last *night*. She weighs one hundred *pounds*.

These adverbial objectives are generally remnants of prepositional phrases. Thus, the foregoing may be regarded as shortened forms of the following:

We went *to home* and stayed (*through or during*) a week. He was high *by or to the extent of* six feet. It cost (*to the amount of*) a dollar. The hat is worth (*to the extent of*) a shilling. Etc.

2. *As Object of a Preposition*.—As we have seen, prepositions are used with nouns and pronouns to form *adjective* and *adverbial phrases*. The nouns and pronouns in such phrases are in the objective case.

They live *in the country*. He believed in *government of the people, for the people, and by the people*. He that is not *with me* is *against me*.

3. *As Object of a Verbal*.—There are certain verb forms that cannot by themselves predicate, but are used as adjectives or nouns. They preserve their verbal character enough to be modified as verbs are, and, when derived from transitive verbs, to take objects after them. Such objects are nouns or pronouns in the objective case, or expressions used as equivalents of nouns or pronouns.

Seeing the multitude, he went up into a mountain. He was told *to study his lesson*. The man was thought of *as one who stole a bank*. He was arrested *for having stolen some fruit*. *Earning money* is hard work; *spending* it is very easy.

Multitude is the object of the participle *seeing*, and the whole phrase, *seeing the multitude*, is a modifier of *he*.

4. *As Subject of a Verbal*.—The verbals, since, like verbs, they express action or state, always imply a subject. This is often not expressed, but when it is, it is generally in the objective case. Verbals that begin with *to* are called *infinitives*, and they always have their subject in the objective case.

I told him *to go*. They persuaded the boy *to accompany them*. We expected the house *to have been finished* before December. They found the old man *sitting by her grave*. It was hard for them *to endure the cold*.

It will be noticed that these *subjects* of verbals are at the same time objects of prepositions or of predicated verbs.

34. EXERCISE.—Of each noun in the following, state the case and tell its use or function:

1. His father was a hero of the Revolution.
2. Pizarro plundered and murdered the Inca of Peru.
3. Believing in his innocence, the lawyer defended him.
4. O that I were the viewless spirit of a lovely sound.
5. Gold is by no means the most valuable metal.
6. The diamond is mere crystallized carbon.
7. Dare to do right, dare to be true,
 You have a work that no other can do.
8. Death, the great leveler, comes to knock at every door.
9. "Time, I have lost it; ah, the treasure"; and he died.
10. He brought his game, a deer, on his back.
11. "My home; I never had a home at any time in my life."
12. The committee found him dictating letters to his secretary.
13. They thought him a hero; they found him a coward.
14. To follow the path of duty, to obey the monitor conscience, should be the aim of all.

35. EXERCISE.—1. Construct sentences each containing one of these verbs followed by a predicate nominative: *was, seemed, appeared, lived, was considered*.

2. By using the following as verbs, make sentences containing a direct and a factitive object: *name, thought, call, choose, consider*.

3. Write a sentence containing a nominative case absolute.

4. Illustrate by sentences a nominative and an objective appositive.

5. Write two sentences each illustrating the nominative case by pleonasm.

6. Write two sentences each containing the adverbial objective construction.

7. Make sentences and place them in diagram showing the difference between an appositive objective and a factitive objective.

8. Write sentences containing nouns used as the subjects, and others as the objects, of verbals.

PARSING THE NOUN.

36. Oral Parsing.—A noun is parsed orally by stating in an orderly way its classification, its inflections, its functions, and its relations. To illustrate, let it be required to parse the nouns in the following sentence:

The visitor was Richelieu, the minister of France.

Visitor: it is a *noun, common, third, masculine, singular, nominative, subject of "was."*

Richelieu: it is a *noun, proper, third, masculine, singular, nominative, predicate noun, agrees in case with "visitor," and denotes the same person that is indicated by the subject.*

Minister: it is a *noun, common, third, masculine, singular, nominative, in apposition to "Richelieu," the meaning of which it explains.*

France: it is a *noun, proper, third, neuter, singular, objective, object of the preposition "of," with which it forms an adjective phrase modifying the meaning of "minister."*

In oral parsing, the reasons should at first be fully given; later, they may be omitted as above; and finally, it is enough to give only the most important facts. For example, with respect to the nouns parsed above, the pupil may say:

Visitor: it is a *common noun, nominative, subject of "was."*

Richelieu: it is a *proper noun, the predicate nominative.*

Minister: it is a *common noun, nominative, in apposition to the word "Richelieu."*

France: it is a *proper noun, object of the preposition "of."*

37. Written Parsing.—To illustrate a method of written parsing of the noun, let it be required to parse the nouns in the following selection:

Here comes his body, mourned by Mark Antony; who, though he had no hand in his death, shall receive the benefit of his dying, a place in the commonwealth.

Noun.	Class.	Gender.	Num-ber.	Case.	Relation.
body	common	neuter	sing.	nom.	subject of "comes"
Mark Antony	proper	mascu.	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. "by"
death	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. "in"
benefit	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of verb "receive"
dying	verbal	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. "of"
place	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	apposition to "benefit"
commonwealth	common	neuter	sing.	obj.	obj. of prep. "in"

38. EXERCISE.—Parse the nouns in the following sentences :

1. Can you tell me, John, whether there are lions in India ?
2. Money, the root of all evil, is, however, the power that makes success and failure.
3. Columbus, fearing a mutiny, promised his men to return to Spain.
4. There is a tide in the affairs of men, which, taken at the flood, leads on to fortune.
5. The book cost a dollar and was sold for two dollars.
6. I had got home to my little tent where I lay all night.
7. Ah, gracious powers ! I wish you would send me an old aunt—a maiden aunt—an aunt with a lozenge on her carriage.
8. They call him king of the coral isle,
 The lord of the tropic seas.
9. A man beyond middle age entered, bearing the look of one that knew the world and was sure of his own course in it.
10. The woman's cause is man's ; they rise or sink together.
11. There stands not by the Ganges' side
 A house where none has ever died.
12. I am so weary of dust and decay,
 Weary of flinging my soul wealth away.
13. A man naturally feels himself superior to him that turns somersaults, whether literal or literary.
14. A dirge is a merrier thing by half
 Than such a soulless, senseless laugh.
15. The unwearied sun from day to day
 Does his Creator's power display,
 And publishes to every land
 The works of an Almighty hand.

DIAGRAMS OF THE CASE CONSTRUCTIONS. .

MODELS OF ANALYSIS.

39. In order that the student may become familiar with the various case constructions and with the method of representing them by diagrams, some model analyses are here given.

1. Our midnight (visitor) [was] O'Connell, the great orator
 + and reformer.

2. (Lazarus) [sat], a beggar at the gate of Dives, the rich man.

3. (He) [looked] a gentleman from head to foot.

EXPLANATION.—The words *beggar* and *gentleman* in 2 and 3 are, like *O'Connell* in 1, predicate nominatives.

4. The boy's (absence) [caused] his mother, poor thing, much grief.
5. The (right) [being] difficult and distasteful, (he) [did] the wrong.

EXPLANATION.—The noun *right* is in the nominative case absolute, and it is, at the same time, the subject of *being*, a participle. It should be noted that most grammarians omit mention of this latter function of nouns and pronouns; but it is just as real as any other, although of little importance.

6. The (vessel) [sunk] last night ten miles from shore.

EXPLANATION.—*Night* and *miles* are adverbial objectives modifying *sunk*. The carets (^) indicate the usual place of the preposition in adverbial phrases.

7. Your sister, John; (you) [resemble] your sister.

EXPLANATION.—*Sister* is in the nominative case by *pleonasm*, and *John* in the nominative case by *address*.

40. EXERCISE.—Analyze the following sentences by diagram, and parse the nouns:

1. Heaven from all creatures hides the book of fate.

- 2. She was thinking then of her former lord, good soul that he was.
- 3. The sleek and shining creatures,—we hunt them for the beauty of their skin.
- 4. Wild natures need wise curbs.
- 5. I know the way by which she went home yesterday.
- 6. The storm having passed, the sea became peaceful.
- 7. Are you my cousin of whose exploits I have so often heard?
- 8. If a mad dog bit your hand, my Lord, would you not chop off the bitten member?
- 9. England; it is the land where might made right eight hundred years ago.
- 10. They sang of what is wise and good and graceful.

TABLE OF NOUNS.

Nouns	I PROPER	<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Particular Names</i>—Henry, Boston.2. <i>Used as Common</i>—The Miltons, the Ciceros.
	II COMMON	<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Class Names</i> <ul style="list-style-type: none">(a) <i>Sensible</i>.—Tree, bird.(b) <i>Rational</i>.—Rest, condition.2. <i>Collective</i>—Army, flock, convention.3. <i>Abstract</i>—Redness, honesty, discordance.4. <i>Verbal</i>—Writing, seeing, hearing.

INFLECTIONS OF NOUNS.

Inflections	I GENDER	<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Masculine</i>—Man, John, stag, Cæsar.2. <i>Feminine</i>—Girl, Dora, filly, Cleopatra.3. <i>Neuter</i>—Book, Boston, day.4. <i>Common</i>—Parent, wolf, fish.
	II NUMBER	<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Singular</i>—Boy, child, Danube.2. <i>Plural</i>—Boys, children, 6's.
	III PERSON	<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>First</i>—I, John, am going.2. <i>Second</i>—Come, James, let us go.3. <i>Third</i>—The earth is a planet.
	IV CASE	<ul style="list-style-type: none">1. <i>Nominative</i>—John came. The boy is a scholar.2. <i>Possessive</i>—Mary's hat. The woman's hope.3. <i>Objective</i>—I saw the clouds from the door.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 4.)

THE ADJECTIVE.

1. The Function of the Adjective.—The adjective has been defined as *a word used to modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun*. When, as the name *adjective* implies, this element is joined directly to a noun, the effect in each case is to *restrict* or *limit* to a particular number, or kind, or other group, the objects named by the noun. This is to *modify* or *measure* the noun in the extent of its application.

Thus, *every object* answering a certain description is included by the noun

tree.

But when modifiers are joined to the noun, the number of denoted objects is *reduced* by excluding all except such as are:

(a) Of a certain **kind** or **quality**; as, *tall* trees, *green* trees, *oak* trees, *evergreen* trees, *forest* trees.

(b) For particular **use**; as, *lumber* trees, *shade* trees, *fruit* trees, *sugar* trees.

(c) Of a certain **number**, *definite* or *indefinite*; as, *six* trees, *several*, *some*, *many*, *few*, trees.

(d) In a certain **condition** of *change* or *action*; as, *dying* trees, *living*, *growing*, *standing*, *fallen*, *chopped*, trees.

(e) Definitely **pointed out**; as, *the* trees, *those*, *yonder*, *my*, trees.

In these and many other ways, the adjective enables us to

separate the object or objects named by the noun from all others that we wish to consider.

2. The Place of the Adjective.—The adjective does not always directly precede the noun as a mere modifier; it is often widely separated from the word whose meaning it modifies. In every position, however, its function is to modify the meaning of a noun or pronoun, and from this use it gets its name. The placing of an adjective at a distance from its usual position has the effect of emphasizing its meaning; but, although when so placed it is still a modifier, it is something more, as is explained below.

Considered with respect to **position**, adjectives are:

1. *Adjunctive*—joined directly to the noun and preceding it; as, *good* weather, *six* tons, *some* money, *that* house. Here the adjective modifies, and nothing more.

2. *Appositive*—placed near, but used like a noun or a pronoun in apposition.

Sad and *silent*, the traveler sat by the roadside. He was condemned for crimes, *real* and *supposed*. *Hopeful*, *confident*, the boy left home.

3. *Predicative*—performing a direct part in predicating, and called, therefore, a *predicate adjective*.

The tree is *green*. The sun is *bright* and *shining*. The boy looks *pale* and seems *sick*.

In (3) the predication is *actually made*—that is, there is formal assertion; in (2) predication is *strongly implied*; and, in (1) it is merely *assumed* or taken for granted. Thus, in the expression **good and true stories**, we *assume*, as something not disputed, that the qualities *goodness* and *trueness* characterize the *stories* of which we speak; in *stories*, **good and true**, the qualities are *more than assumed*. It is as if we said, *stories that are good and true*; only we do not quite say it. But in *The stories are good and true*, the predication is actually made—we *assert* that the qualities are really possessed by the things named by *stories*.

3. Adjectives Classified With Respect to Form.—When considered with respect to their form, adjectives may be:

1. *Proper* or *Common*.

(a) A *proper* adjective is one that is formed from a *proper* noun; as, *French, Miltonic, Parisian, Rhenish, Franco-Prussian*.

(b) A *common* adjective is one that is not derived from a proper noun; as, *true, fresh, lively, soul-stirring*.

Some adjectives derived from proper nouns are now treated as common adjectives, being written without initial capitals; as, *herculean* from *Hercules*, *tantalizing* from *Tantalus*, *titanic* from *Titan*, *stentorian* from *Stentor*, *romantic* from *Roma*, etc.

2. *Simple* or *Compound*.

(a) A *simple* adjective is one that consists of but *one* word element; as, *sweet, lonely, extravagant, Spanish*.

(b) A *compound* adjective is one that is composed of *two* or *more* word elements; as, *lifelike, homesick, rosy-fingered, all-wise, self-confident, never-to-be-forgotten, Russo-Greek, Spanish-American*.

3. *Primitive* or *Derivative*.

(a) A *primitive* adjective is one that is not derived from a simpler word in actual use in our language; as, *true, thin, sincere, sweet*.

(b) A *derivative* adjective is one that is *derived* from a simpler word used in the language; as, *truly, homely, thinnest, insincere, sweetish, changeable*.

4. Derivation of Adjectives.—Adjectives are formed from simpler elements by means of *prefixes* and *suffixes*. These may be joined to several classes of words as follows:

1. *Nouns*.—Adjectives are formed from nouns by the addition of *suffixes*; such as, *al, able, ous, ic, ish, ful, y, en, ed, some, less, ly, ile, an, ane*, and many others.

Examples are: *national, lovable, furious, tonic, childish, faithful, hearty, wooden, timbered, burdensome, luckless, motherly, puerile, urban, urbane*, etc.

2. *Other Adjectives*.—The most commonly used suffixes by which adjectives are formed from other adjectives are *er, est, ish, fold, some, teen (ten), ly, th, ty (ten)*.

The following are examples: *sounder, saddest, sweetish, threefold, lonesome, thirteen, kindly, fifth, ninety.*

3. *Verbs*.—Many adjectives are derived from verbs. Some of these are **verbals** used unchanged or with prefixes; as, *growing, shorn, shaven, unfed, unloved, cultivated, foredoomed, prepaid, countersigned, interviewed.*

Others are formed from verbs or verb stems by adding suffixes, *native* or *classical*; as, *wakeful, exhaustless, tiresome, blowy, eatable, credible, urgent, considerate, credulous, composite, active, textile, static, etc.*

5. **Compound Adjectives**.—The number of compound adjectives is very great, and is constantly increasing. Classified with reference to the elements of which they are composed, they are as follows:

Adjective +	{ Adjective; as, <i>pale-blue, white-hot, red-orange.</i> Verbal; as, <i>slow-moving, high-stepping, good-looking, high-born.</i> Noun; as, <i>red-headed, keen-sighted, sharp-tongued, rapid-fire, rosy-fingered.</i>
Noun +	{ Adjective; as, <i>heart-whole, fancy-free, love-lorn, hopeful, sky-blue.</i> Verbal; as, <i>foot-worn, heart-breaking, hand-made, home-brewed, ivy-covered.</i> Noun; as, <i>lion-hearted, cherry-lipped, ox-eyed, deer-footed, Krag-Jørgensen.</i>
Adverb +	{ Adjective; as, <i>all-powerful, over-honest, truly-good, doubly-wicked.</i> Verbal; as, <i>never-ceasing, so-called, swiftly-flying, well-dressed, quick-witted, early-rising.</i>

Verb + Noun; as, *breakneck, do-nothing, killjoy, breakbone.*

There are compound adjectives, consisting of combinations other than the foregoing, but these include the most important. Most compound adjectives are written with hyphens, but such as are of old and frequent use have acquired the solid form. When the student is in doubt whether or not to use a hyphen, he should consult a generally approved dictionary.

6. Adjectives Classified With Respect to Use.—All adjectives modify, but most of them do so by denoting some *quality* or other in the thing indicated by the modified word. The others consist of several small groups that are known by special names. The following, however, is intended to include all adjectives; but it should be added that no classification so far made is perfect. For example, many *demonstratives* denote *quantity*, and many *qualitatives* and some *quantitatives* have a *pointing-out* or *demonstrative* value. The class in which an adjective belongs must be determined by its *most conspicuous* mark or function.

Divided according to use or function, adjectives are:

I. **Qualitative.**—These denote quality, and, for that reason, they are called by many grammarians *qualifying* adjectives. The number of this class of adjectives is immense, including all that denote *qualities* perceived directly by the senses—*sensible* qualities—and qualities inferred by the mind from something perceived by the senses—*rational* qualities.

1. *Sensible (perceived).*—*Red, sweet, fragrant, loud, heavy, long, rough, left-handed, English, living, Caucasian.*

2. *Rational (conceived).*—*Honest, true, gentle, thoughtful, well-beloved, affectionate.*

Each of the foregoing classes may be divided into *common*, *proper*, and *verbal* or *participial*; and these may be *simple* or *compound*, as already explained.

II. **Quantitative.**—These are such as denote quantity either *definite* or *indefinite*; they relate to *mass* as well as to *number*.

1. *Definite.*—*Both, all, no, five, whole.*

2. *Indefinite.*—*Any, few, some, several, divers, much, little.*

Adjectives of quantity that denote number are called *numeral* adjectives. Of these there are two classes: *cardinal*; as *one, two, three*, etc.; and *ordinal*; as, *first, second, third*, etc.

III. **Demonstrative.**—These are adjectives used to *point out*; in the case of some of them, the effect is much the same as when one points with the finger. This class is named *demonstrative* from the fact that the Latin word *demonstrare* means “to show,” “point out,” or “indicate.”

The demonstratives are subdivided as follows:

1. *Articles.*—Of these there are two: *a* or *an*, called the *indefinite* article, and *the*, the *definite* article.

A is used before *consonant* sounds; as, *a man, a house*; *an* is used before *vowel* sounds; as, *an army, an egg, an iron, an onion, an urn*.

It should be observed that a word may begin with a *vowel* sound, but not with a *vowel*; as, *herb, heir, honesty*, etc.

2. *Pronominal Adjectives.*—The student has already learned that words are sometimes used with double functions. The name, *pronominal adjective*, denotes that this class of words does duty both as pronouns and as adjectives. As *adjectives*, they modify the meaning of nouns; as pronouns, they represent, refer to, or take the place of, nouns. Thus, in the expression, *his hat*, the word *his* points out which hat is meant, and at the same time stands for the name of the owner of the hat. If, for example, the hat belongs to John, *his hat* = *John's hat*; and *his* and *John's* are alike in function.

Again, nearly all of these words may stand alone *instead of nouns*; that is, they may be used as *pronouns*; as, *This is a tree. Some are living, but many are dead.* It is only when they are joined to a noun and modify its meaning that they are pronominal adjectives; as, *That hat was formerly my property. Each man owes something to every man.*

The pronominal adjectives have been arranged in the following classes:

(a) *Ordinary Demonstratives.*—These are called *pronominal adjectives* only because they are often used as *pronouns*. But when they are joined to a noun to modify its meaning, they are really nothing more than adjectives in function.

Still, even then, they are called *pronominal adjectives*. They are *this, that, these, those, yon, yonder, and such*.

(b) *Interrogative*.—There are only two words now used in this class: *which* and *what*. *What* money have you? *Which* book have you read?

These two words are used without interrogative value as mere demonstrative modifiers. Thus, Tell me *which* book you want. I cannot say at *what* hour the train leaves.

(c) *Possessive*.—In this class are included *my, mine, our, ours, thy, thine, your, yours, his, hers, its, their, theirs, and whose*. The last may be used either *interrogatively* or *relatively*; as, *Whose* house is that? He is the man *whose* letter came yesterday.

The forms *mine, thine, ours, yours, his, hers, and theirs* are not possessives in the usual sense; for, while they do indeed denote possession, they can scarcely be said to be in the possessive case, since they can be used as the subject of a verb or as the object of a verb or a preposition. *Mine* is to *yours* exactly as *his* is to *hers*. They can also be used either as singular or plural. *His* were all dear, but *ours* is not.

If *hers* means *Ann's book*, it does the work of both words. By its *form* it denotes possession, but its *real case* will depend on its actual *use*. It is never possessive *both in form and use*.

(d) *Indefinite*.—Such pronominal adjectives as *point out*, but *not definitely*, belong in this class, which includes about fifty words. Some of them are *certain, another, few, less, more, other, sundry*.

The following, when used with nouns, are called *distributives*, because they imply separate and individual attention to the persons or things named by the nouns they modify: *each, every, either, neither*.

7. EXERCISE.—Mention the adjectives in the following sentences, give the class as determined by the use or function of each, and tell what each adjective modifies:

1. The way was long, the wind was cold.
2. Soft and sweet, like the murmur of distant waters, was her voice from the meadow.
3. At last my eyes could see a woman fair, but awful as this round white moon o'erhead.
4. The gray sea, and the long black land,
And the yellow half-moon, large and low,
And the startled little waves that leap
In fiery ringlets from their sleep;
Then I gain the cove with the pushing prow,
And quench its speed in the slushy sand.
5. The youth with many a merry trick goes singing on his careless way.
6. Far off, three mountain tops,
Three silent pinnacles of aged snow,
Stood sunset-flushed; and dew'd with showery drops,
Up-clomb the shadowy pine above the woven copse.
7. Look—how round his straining throat
Grace and shifting beauty float;
Sinewy strength is in his reins,
And the red blood gallops through his veins—
Richer, redder, never ran
Through the boasting heart of man.
8. Sweet bird that sing'st away the early hours
Of winters past or coming, void of care;
Well pleased with delights which present are,
Fair seasons, budding sprays, sweet-smelling flowers.

8. EXERCISE.—1. By using suffixes, convert the following nouns into adjectives: *friend, fog, virtue, truth, home, burden, year, awe, brass, flax, sense, child, feather, fear, demon*.

2. From the following *adjectives* form other adjectives by means of suffixes: *clear, sick, lone, nine, black, comic, glad, weak, blithe, grim, scant, droll*.

3. Form *compound adjectives* as follows, five of each, by combining (a) *two adjectives*; (b) *an adjective and a noun*; (c) *an adjective and a verbal*.

4. Illustrate the following by five compound adjectives for each: (a) *noun + adjective*; (b) *noun + verbal*; (c) *noun + noun*.

5. Form five compound adjectives for each of the following: (a) *adverb + adjective*; (b) *adverb + verbal*.

INFLECTION OF THE ADJECTIVE.

COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES.

9. The pronominal demonstratives *this* and *that* take the inflected forms *these* and *those* to denote the plural number.

Singular.—*This* man, *that* mountain.

Plural.—*These* men, *those* mountains.

With these exceptions, adjectives have but one inflection, which is called **comparison**. Qualitatives—adjectives that denote quality either *sensible* or *rational*—are, most of them, inflected for *degrees* of the quality denoted. The qualities by means of which we distinguish one thing from another are generally present in different degrees or amounts among the things having those qualities. Thus, we may say of one thing that it is *large*, or *pretty*, or *beautiful*; of another, that it is the *larger*, the *prettier*, or the *more beautiful* of two; of a third, that it is the *largest*, the *prettiest*, or the *most beautiful* of three or more.

Such adjectives as are compared or inflected for quality have *three degrees of comparison*: the *positive*, the *comparative*, and the *superlative*.

But many adjectives that denote quality are not capable of different degrees. These of course are not inflected—they are *incomparable*. These may, in general, be known by their meaning. Some of them are:

1. Adjectives denoting *geometrical magnitudes*; as, *round*, *square*, *cubical*, *circular*, *triangular*, *angular*, *linear*, *equilateral*, *spherical*, *straight*.

If, for example, anything is really *round* or *square* or *triangular* or *cubical* it cannot be any more or any less so. Such words then cannot in strictness be compared, yet it is often done by careless writers, and often by classical authors, and often for apparently good reasons.

2. Adjectives with a *negative element*, which may be a prefix denoting the absence of the quality indicated by the

rest of the word; as, *inconceivable, unseen, adamantine, achromatic, averse, ignorant, illicit, immature.*

The negative element may be final; as, *hopeless, harmless.*

3. Adjectives denoting quality *not capable of increase or diminution*; as, *perfect, complete, absolute, infinite, everlasting, dead, asleep, satisfied, celestial, divine, human, material, golden, weekly, eternal, endless.*

The student should note, however, that many adjectives not really comparable are inflected in common, and even in classical, usage. Thus, it is very common to meet *more complete, most perfect, most excellent, more divine, most hopeless*, etc. It is usually better to avoid expressions that cannot be defended. Few writers are, like Shakespeare and Milton, great enough to be above literary law and usage.

4. Latin comparatives used as ordinary English adjectives cannot be compared; as, *anterior, superior, inferior, senior, junior, prior.* These comparatives are usually followed by *to*, while ordinary English comparatives require *than*. Thus, *prior to, earlier than; inferior to, worse than.*

10. The Positive Degree.—The objects that we know and have names for we become acquainted with through their qualities or through their relations to other things. Thus, when we say *orange*, the word calls up in the mind certain ideas of *shape, size, color, taste, smell*, etc. We know it by its *sensible* qualities.

Again, *honesty* is the name of a *rational* quality belonging to a man's conduct when related in a certain way to other human beings. If man habitually acts so and so under particular circumstances, his conduct illustrates some quality, as honesty, and we speak of him as *an honest man*.

Now, it is by means of these qualities, sensible and rational, and by the various relations among things, that we are able to recognize objects and distinguish them from one another. By their *differences* and *resemblances*, and by their *relations*, and in no other way, we become acquainted with them.

But before we can say that anything is *large*, for example, we must have a notion of average size for objects of that kind. This notion we get by experience in comparing many things of that class. When one says, *a large house, tree, animal*, the expression *implies* that he has seen and compared *many houses, many trees, many animals*, and that he has in his mind a *general notion* or *type* with respect to the size of each kind of thing mentioned. This type is not often the same with different persons, for it is derived from *experience*, and this is very various. The wider the experience, the more valuable the type.

This *typical* notion of quality is the **positive degree** of that quality. It is expressed by the simple uninflected form of the adjective; as, *wise, sorry, red, pale*.

Definition.—*The positive degree of an adjective is the form or use of it that implies the comparison of one thing or group of things with many others of the class.*

11. The Comparative Degree.—In the use of an adjective in the *positive* degree, the comparison is only *implied* or *taken for granted*; in the *comparative* degree, the comparison of one thing with another must actually be made. Only *two objects* or *two groups* of objects are considered—one having a certain quality, and the other having it in a *higher* or *lower* measure or degree. Thus, one thing may be *sweet* or *pretty* or *long* or *small*, and the other *sweeter*, *prettier*, *longer*, or *smaller* than the first. An adjective so used is in the **comparative degree**.

Definition.—*The comparative degree of an adjective is the form or use of it by which a comparison with respect to some quality is made between two things or groups of things.*

A girl prettier than my cousin.

The { *less* } *valuable house* of the two.
 { *more* }

A { *less* } *satisfactory collection* than mine.
 { *more* }

12. The Superlative Degree.—When the superlative degree of an adjective is used, the least number of objects or groups of objects considered is *three*. One of them, as compared with the others—two or more—is seen to have the *highest* or *lowest* degree of some quality; and, to denote this, a form or use of the adjective known as the **superlative degree** is required. This degree also, like the comparative, requires an *actual* comparison. At least *three pretty* or *good* or *little* objects must be compared before we can say that one of them is the *prettiest*, the *best*, the *least*. The word *superlative* means “surpassing,” “above or beyond all others.”

Definition.—*The superlative degree of an adjective is the form or use of it by which a comparison with respect to some quality is made among three or more things or groups of things.*

The $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{least} \\ \text{most} \end{array} \right\}$ *valuable house. The prettiest girl.*

13. Rules for Comparing Adjectives.

I. *Adjectives of one syllable are compared as follows:*

Positive + $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{er} = \text{comparative; as, bright, brighter.} \\ \text{est} = \text{superlative; as, smooth, smoothest.} \end{array} \right.$

II. *Adjectives of two or more syllables usually take the adverbs more or less before the positive to form the comparative, and most or least to form the superlative.*

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{more} \\ \text{less} \end{array} \right\} + \text{positive} = \text{comparative; as, } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{more} \\ \text{less} \end{array} \right\} \text{ beautiful.}$

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{most} \\ \text{least} \end{array} \right\} + \text{positive} = \text{superlative; as, } \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{most} \\ \text{least} \end{array} \right\} \text{ beautiful.}$

III. *Special Rule.*—*Adjectives of two syllables ending in y, and many in ow and e, usually add er and est to the positive to form, respectively, the comparative and the superlative.*

$\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{lovely} \\ \text{holy} \\ \text{sorry} \\ \text{easy} \\ \text{angry} \end{array} \right\} + \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{er} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{comparative; as, lovelier, holier, sorrier,} \\ \text{easier, angrier.} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{est} = \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{superlative; as, loveliest, holiest, sor-} \\ \text{riest, easiest, angriest.} \end{array} \right. \end{array} \right.$

polite	} + {	er = {	comparative; as, <i>politer</i> , <i>mellower</i> , <i>narrower</i> , <i>simpler</i> , <i>hollower</i> .
mellow			
narrow		est = {	superlative; as, <i>politest</i> , <i>mellowest</i> , <i>narrowest</i> , <i>simplest</i> , <i>hollowest</i> .
simple			
hollow			

14. General Principle.—*Many other adjectives of two syllables are compared with er and est, when to do so does not offend the ear.*

The preferable form of comparison is largely dependent on usage, and in nearly all cases this may be determined by the *ear*. Harshness of sound or difficulty of pronunciation is always sufficient cause for rejecting the regular comparison—that by *er* and *est*.

It should be added that the sentential use of an adjective has much to do with its comparison. If an adjective is joined directly to a noun, the preferable comparison is by *er* and *est*, if euphony permits; but if the adjective is used in the *predicate* or like a noun in *apposition*, comparison by *more* and *most* or by *less* and *least* is to be preferred, especially in poetry.

A form *more fair* and a face *more sweet*. Surely, surely, slumber is *more sweet* than toil. A fearsome sound, *most weird* and *strange*, was heard. The wind breathes low with *mellower* tone. He stooped to touch the *loftiest* thought.

The same is true when not comparison, but only a high or a low degree of a quality is intended; as, Most weary seemed the sea = *Very weary*, etc.

15. Modifications in Spelling.—1. *Adjectives ending in e silent omit the e before er and est; as, able, abler, ablest.*

2. *Final y preceded by a consonant is changed into i; as, gaudy, gaudier, gaudiest.*

3. *A final consonant preceded by a short accented vowel is doubled before er and est; as, slim, slimmer, slimmest; sad, sadder, saddest.*

16. Irregular Comparison.—The following adjectives are most of them of very frequent use, and are irregular in comparison:

<i>Positive.</i>	<i>Comparative.</i>	<i>Superlative.</i>
bad, ill, evil	worse	worst
far	farther	farthest
little	less	least
many, much	more	most
old	older, elder	oldest, eldest
forth (adv.)	further	furthest
fore	former	foremost, first
late	later, latter	latest, last
hind	hinder	hindmost
nigh	nigher	nighest, next
[neath]	nether	nethermost
[out]	outer, utter	{ outmost, outermost, { utmost, uttermost
[up]	upper	upmost, uppermost
[in]	inner	inmost, innermost
good	better	best

17. Parsing the Adjective.—To parse an adjective, the student should mention:

1. *Its Class.*—This involves stating its class as *qualitative*, *quantitative*, or *demonstrative*. If it is *qualitative*, it may be *sensible* or *rational*; if *quantitative*, it may be *definite*, *indefinite*, or *numeral*; if *numeral*, it may be *cardinal* or *ordinal*. If it is *demonstrative*, it may be an *article* either *definite* or *indefinite*; or it may be a *pronominal*, and if so, it is *ordinary*, *interrogative*, *possessive*, or *indefinite*.

2. *Its Comparison.*—State whether or not it is compared. If it is compared, give its comparison, and say in what *degree* it is found.

3. *Its Use.*—State what it modifies, and whether it is an *adjunctive*, a *predicative*, or an *appositive* adjective.

Let it be required to parse the adjectives in the following sentence:

But he thought of his sister, proud and cold,
And his mother, vain of her rank and gold.

His: an *adjective*, *demonstrative*, *pronominal*, not compared, and, as a mere *adjunct*, modifies *sister*.

Proud: an *adjective, qualitative, rational*; compared by *er* and *est*; it is in the *positive* degree, and is an *appositive* modifier of *sister*.

Cold, vain: (parsed exactly like *proud*).

Her: (parsed like *his*).

18. Adjective Equivalents.—As has already been explained, the adjective function may be filled by sentential elements other than ordinary adjectives.

1. *By a verbal*; as, a *living tree*, coal *to sell*, a story *to be believed*, etc.

2. *By a prepositional phrase*; as, a letter *from home*, a cure *for lisping*, a day *for planting trees*, the apples *in the cellar*.

3. *By a clause*; as, a tree *that is alive*, a story *that should be believed*, a man *whose father was in the Revolution*, a voter *when he became a man*.

4. *By a noun in the possessive case*; as, John's hat, a mother's care.

19. Expansion of Adjective Elements.—Almost any adjective word element may be expanded into a phrase or even into a clause.

A *summer day* = a day *in summer*.

A *kind act* = an act *of kindness* = an act *that was kind*.

A *memorable event* = an event *to be remembered* = an event *that should be remembered*.

It is evident, therefore, that phrases and clauses used as adjective modifiers may generally be condensed into single words; and, inasmuch as *force* is gained by brevity, we should prefer the shorter forms unless there are good reasons for using the longer.

20. Uses of Adjective Phrases and Clauses.—We have seen that an adjective may be a mere *adjunct*, a *complement* of the predicate, and that it may be used *appositively* to add some fact or circumstance, or to explain the meaning of something that precedes.

The same is true of adjective *phrases* and *clauses*.

Adjunctive or Restrictive.

Predicative.

The price { demanded
in New York
that was demanded } was { high.
beyond our means.
what we promised to pay.

Appositive or Coordinate.

The cat, *which is a relative of the lion*, is a predatory animal.

The lady, *who was very pretty*, secured the position.

The price, *which of course we paid*, was absurdly high.

Appositive or *coordinate* clauses are distinguished from *adjunctive* and *restrictive* clauses by being set off by commas. A fuller treatment of clauses will be found in another part of this work.

21. EXERCISE.—In the following, parse the adjectives, and point out the adjective phrases and clauses; tell which are *appositive*, which *predicative*, and which *adjunctive*; state also what each modifies.

1. This murderous chief, this ruthless man,
This head of a rebellious clan,
Hath led thee safe.
2. Gentleness, the characteristic mark of the true gentleman of the old school, distinguished his every act, even the most trifling.
3. The church that stood by our old-time schoolhouse is in ruins.
4. In their ragged regimentals, stood the old Continentals, yielding not.
5. The three stood calm and silent, and looked upon their foes,
And a great shout of laughter from all the vanguard rose.
6. Alone stood brave Horatius, but constant still in mind—
Thrice thirty thousand foes before, and the broad flood behind.
7. The emperor there, in his box of state,
Looked grave; as if he had just then seen
The red flag wave from the city gate,
Where his eagles in bronze had been.
8. He that gives up the smallest part of his secret has no control over what remains.
9. The experience that teaches us to govern our own spirits is the best of all training.
10. O, a dainty plant is the ivy green,
That creepeth o'er ruins old;
Of right choice food are his meals, I ween,
In his cell so lone and cold.

22. EXERCISE.—Determine by the ear or by a dictionary the approved comparison of the following words, and note the modifications of spelling:

dry	sincere	noble	remote	faithful
wry	guilty	curious	deadly	morose
shy	haughty	precious	awkward	irate
sly	common	wealthy	wholesome	complete
spry	lovely	swarthy	tardy	discreet

23. EXERCISE.—Compare such of the following adjectives as admit comparison, and explain why each of the others does not:

golden	empty	ultimate	perfect	humane
entire	final	erect	wooden	unanswerable
English	prone	false	universal	friendless
spherical	dead	extreme	eternal	infallible

24. Other Methods of Comparison.—The regular comparison by annexing *er* and *est* is usually called an *inflection*, although it is really a species of *derivation*. Of the method by means of the adverbs *more*, *most*, and *less*, *least*, it should be remarked that this is in no sense an inflection, and that there seems no very clear reason why grammarians should have selected these particular adverbs to use in comparing adjectives; for there are a great many other adverbs that modify with more definiteness; as, *somewhat*, *slightly*, *very*, *quite*, *extremely*, *exceedingly*, *positively*, *decidedly*, *barely*, *merely*, *only*, *rarely*, *occasionally*, *temporarily*, etc. All these are useful, and the student should have a ready command over a good variety of them. Not only are adverbs used for this purpose of comparison, but adverbial *phrases* and *clauses* also, when greater precision of degree is required.

Words	{ <i>pretty, exceptionally, tolerably, often, excessively, frequently, charmingly, surprisingly, coldly, delightfully, guardedly, finally, refreshingly, truly.</i> }	cordial.
Phrases	{ <i>in school, in manner, at dinner, towards the aged, in speech, at times, from early training, in taking leave, by instinct, from policy, to excess, with an object, from habit.</i> }	polite.
Clauses	{ <i>if he is in the mood, when he can afford to be so, although he is poor, when he chooses to be, where there is merit, when he should be otherwise, to those whom he loves, in a way that gives no offense.</i> }	generous.

TABLE OF THE ADJECTIVE.

ADJECTIVES	Qualitative	1. COMMON	{ <i>Simple</i> —good, wise, happy. <i>Compound</i> —four-handed, blue-eyed.
		2. PROPER	{ <i>Simple</i> —Russian, English. <i>Compound</i> —Anglo-American.
		3. PARTICIPIAL	{ <i>Simple</i> —amusing, pleasing. <i>Compound</i> —life-giving, wool-gathering.
	Quantitative	1. DEFINITE	{ <i>Common</i> —whole, no, enough, both, all. <i>Numeral</i> —{ <i>Cardinal</i> —one, six. <i>Ordinal</i> —first, sixth.
		2. INDEFINITE	{ <i>Common</i> —some, much, little, any. <i>Numeral</i> —any, few, some, several, divers.
	Demonstrative	1. ARTICLE	{ <i>Definite</i> —the. <i>Indefinite</i> —a, an.
		2. PRONOMINAL	{ (a) <i>Common</i> —this, these; that, those; yon, yonder. (b) <i>Interrogative</i> —which? what? (c) <i>Indefinite</i> —each, either, certain, else, sundry. (d) <i>Possessive</i> —my, thy, his, her, their.

THE PRONOUN.

25. The Function of the Pronoun.—The pronoun has been described as a word used *instead of*, or as a *substitute for*, a noun. This description comes from the literal meaning of the word *pronoun* (*pro*, "for," *noun*, "a name"), but this definition is not exactly true of all the pronouns. When *John* says of himself, *I see*, the meaning is somewhat different from what it would be if he should say *John sees*. In the former case, *I* represents the speaker, and shows by

its form that it does so: in the latter example, *John* may denote the speaker, but nothing about the *form* of the word denotes that it does, as is the case with *I*.

When of himself and Henry, to whom he speaks, he says *We see*, it is not equivalent to *John and Henry see*. But if the pronoun were an exact substitute for a noun, these pairs of sentences would be exact equivalents. By its *form*, *I* denotes the speaker but gives no hint of who he is—it shows only that somebody, present and known without being named, is speaking. It would serve equally well if the name of the speaker were unknown, or even if he had no name.

In like manner,

We = *I* + *you* (the speaker + the listener), and,

We = *I* + *you* + *he* (the speaker + the listener + Henry), etc.

In this last case, *he* is a *real substitute* for a noun, but *you* and *I* are not. Hence,

I denotes that some one, whose name is unknown or does not need to be known, is *in the relation of speaker*.

We denotes that some one is speaking for himself and for others that have been referred to or are present. What their names are is generally a matter of no importance.

You denotes some one in the relation of listener to some one speaking, and it is used whether the listener's name is known or not.

He, she, they, etc. are real substitutes for names.

It appears, therefore, that the definition usually given for the pronoun is objectionable from the fact that it does not exactly describe the functions of *all* the pronouns. Doubtless, however, it is the best that can be devised. Perhaps the definition already given is somewhat less open to objection than that usually met with in the grammars.

Definition.—*A pronoun is a word that denotes persons and things without naming them.*

26. The Antecedent of a Pronoun.—Every pronoun denotes the name of some person or thing, or it is a substitute for such a name. This name is the **antecedent** of the pronoun. The name *antecedent* means “going before,” the

implication being that the name denoted occurs in the sentence *before* the pronoun that denotes it. Such is usually, but not always, the case. Thus, in the sentence, *John* resolved that *he* would earn *his money* before *he* would spend *it*, the pronouns *he* and *his* follow the antecedent *John*. The same is true of *it* in respect to *money*. But in the sentence, *Who* discovered the Pacific Ocean? the antecedent of *who* is inquired for and must be found in an answer to the question, *Balboa* discovered it. The antecedent of *it* is, however, really antecedent in position.

Moreover, the pronouns *I*, *we*, *me*, *us*, *you*, and all others denoting the speaker or the listener, can scarcely be said to have antecedents, since, as we have seen, they are not strictly substitutes for nouns; they *denote persons* or *things* rather than *take the place of names*, and an *antecedent* is a *word* or an *expression*, not a *person* or a *thing*. In the sentence, *I* hurt *myself*, neither of the pronouns has an antecedent word; each represents a person, but so far as the reader knows or the sentence indicates, the person denoted by the pronouns has no name, or, if he has, it need not be known.

CLASSES OF PRONOUNS.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

27. Function of the Personal Pronoun.—Although the number of pronouns is small, they are divided into several classes, which are usually grouped under five heads: *personal*, *relative*, *interrogative*, *demonstrative*, and *indefinite*. The *personal* pronouns are those that by their *form* indicate *persons*—the *speaker*, the *hearer*, or the person or thing *spoken about*.

- (a) *The speaker*; as, *I*, *me*, *mine*, *we*, etc.
- (b) *The person addressed*; as, *thou*, *you*, *thine*, *yours*, etc.
- (c) *The person or thing spoken of*; as, *he*, *him*, *she*, *them*, etc.

The words *my*, *thy*, *our*, *your*, *his*, *her*, *its*, and *their*, when

followed by a noun whose meaning they modify, are generally called *pronominal adjectives*; as, *my* work, *its* safety, *his* neglect, *thy* duty, etc.

28. Absolute Possessive Pronouns.—The pronouns *mine*, *thine*, *his*, *hers*, *ours*, *yours*, and *theirs*, when used as equivalent to a noun with a pronominal modifier, are called **absolute possessive pronouns**; as, *mine* and *yours* are better than *his* and *hers*.

These pronouns, although they denote *possession*, are never used in the *possessive* case, and they are either singular or plural. Thus I may speak of *my* boy or *my* boys as *mine*. By absorbing the possessives *my*, *thy*, etc., they take into their *meaning* the idea of *possession*, but their *function* is always *nominative* or *objective*.

If *mine* were *yours*, you would have more than all *theirs*.
She gave *hers* for *his* and *ours*.

29. Compound Personal Pronouns.—Certain of the personal pronouns annex *self* or *selves* to form compound personal pronouns:

<i>my</i>	<i>him</i>	} <i>self</i>	<i>our</i>	} <i>selves</i>
<i>thy</i>	<i>her</i>		<i>your</i>	
<i>your</i>	<i>it</i>		<i>them</i>	

These pronouns, in either the nominative or the objective case, are usually in apposition to some other word; or they are intensive and have the effect of emphasis. When in apposition, they are usually set off by commas.

I, *myself*, will go. They attacked the king *himself*.

They are used *reflexively* also; that is, denoting the same person or thing as the subject, and as the *object* of a *verb* or *preposition*, or as a *predicate nominative*.

I hurt *myself*. A house divided against *itself*. Richard is *himself* again.

Both the nominative and the objective case are shown in the following from Tennyson: "And I, *myself*, sometimes despise *myself*."

The personal pronouns are sometimes used *reflexively*; as,
Get *thee* gone. I did repent *me*. I do remember *me* that in my youth, etc.

Self or *selves* may be used as a noun preceded by the nominal modifier *own*; as,

To your own *self* be true. We saw the giant's own *self*.

DECLENSION OF THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

DENOTING THE FIRST PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	I	we
<i>Possessive</i>	my, mine	our, ours
<i>Objective</i>	me	us

DENOTING THE SECOND PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nominative</i>	thou, you	you, ye
<i>Possessive</i>	thy, thine, your	your, yours
<i>Objective</i>	thee, you	you

DENOTING THE THIRD PERSON.

	<i>Singular.</i>			<i>Plural.</i>
	<i>Masculine.</i>	<i>Feminine.</i>	<i>Neuter.</i>	
<i>Nominative</i>	he	she	it	they
<i>Possessive</i>	his	her, hers	its	their, theirs
<i>Objective</i>	him	her	it	them

RELATIVE PRONOUNS.

30. Function of the Relative Pronoun.—The relative or conjunctive pronouns have *double* functions in sentences: they *stand for* a noun or an equivalent of a noun, and they *connect clauses*.

My father died yesterday. }
 + } = { *My father, who* died yesterday, was
My father was a lawyer. } } a lawyer.

This dog is for sale. }
 + } = { *This dog, which* gained the
This dog gained the first prize. } } first prize, is for sale.

This man owns the house. }
 + } = { *This man owns the house that* Jack
Jack built *the house*. } } built.

In the first sentence *who* stands for *my father*, and it connects the two clauses; it is besides the *subject* of *died*. In the second sentence the function of *which* is exactly similar to that of *who* in the first sentence. *That*, in the last sentence, connects the clauses and is the object of *built*; this is because it takes the place of *the house* in the second of the united clauses. The words *father*, *dog*, and *house*, to which the pronouns relate, are called *antecedents*—meaning words that *go before*: *father* is the antecedent of *who*; *dog*, of *which*; *house*, of *that*.

31. The Simple Relative.—The *simple* relative pronouns are *who*, *which*, *what*, and *that*.

Who is used for *persons*, and for *animals* and *things personified*—that is, spoken of as if they were persons. It is inflected for *case*, but has the same form in both the singular and the plural.

Nom., *who*; Julius Cæsar, *who* invaded Britain, soon returned to Gaul.

Poss., *whose*; Alexander, *whose* father was Philip, was taught by Aristotle.

Obj., *whom*; Napoleon, *whom* all France loved, died at St. Helena.

Which is used for *animals* and for *things without life*, although it was formerly used for *persons*; as, Our Father, *which* art in Heaven. *Which* is not inflected either for *number* or *case*, but *whose* is sometimes used as its possessive case; as, The jewels, *whose* value was great, were seized by the sheriff. This usage, however, is condemned by many authorities, who prefer *of which* to *whose* when the reference is to anything without life.

Nom., *which*; The telephone, *which* was once merely curious, is now indispensable.

Poss., [*whose*]; We heard a noise the cause *of which* we could not determine. There were many horses *whose* owners had been killed.

Obj., *which*; He solved the problem *which* we found in Euclid. [We found *which*. Which is the object of found.]

But *whose* should be preferred to *of which* in cases of *personification*; that is, when inanimate things are spoken of

as if acting in the manner of *persons* or other intelligent living agents.

The *earth, whose* treasures are for man's benefit, etc. They sought *gold, whose* blight has been upon men, etc.

That is the most useful of all the relatives, being a substitute for either *who* or *which*. It is used in both the singular and the plural.

The *man that* hath not music in him, etc.

The *ships that* pass in the night.

The *cat that* killed the *rat that* ate the malt.

This relative differs from *who* and *which* by not being used immediately after a preposition. Thus we may say,

The <i>man</i>	{	with <i>whom</i> I went (not with <i>that</i>).
		by <i>whom</i> it was done.
		through <i>whose</i> agency, etc.
The <i>verse</i>	{	In <i>which</i> we delighted.
		by <i>whose</i> music we were charmed.
		against <i>which</i> objections were urged.

Yet we have, I have sinned **in** *that* I have betrayed innocent blood (*in that* = *in this that*, etc.). When the relative stands apart from the preposition, *that* may be used for *who* or *which*; as,

This is the man { *that* / *whom* } I referred to (*to whom*).

Here is the tree { *that* / *which* } was spoken of (*of which*).

32. Relatives in Restrictive and in Coordinate Clauses.—There is an important distinction in the use of *who*, *which*, and *that* in relative clauses. Many of our best writers observe it, and it is strongly insisted on by a large number of our highest authorities in grammar.

Professor Bain states the principle in the following language:

“The adjective clause, in its fundamental restrictive application, should be introduced by the restrictive relative that.”

It should be noted that

A **restrictive clause** is one that does the work of a mere *modifier*; and that

A **coordinate clause** is a clause of *equal rank* with a leading or principal clause. It usually adds some *circumstance* to the principal clause. This addition may be in its nature *appositive*, *explanatory*, or a mere *afterthought*; but its rank in the sentence is the same as that of the principal clause—*coordinate* with it in importance. The following examples will make the matter plain:

Restrictive Clauses.—The rope *that was made of cotton* (cotton rope) was not so strong as the cable *that was made of steel* (steel cable). The man *that hesitates* (hesitating man) is lost. Clauses so used are mere adjectives in function—they *narrow, restrict, modify*, the meaning of a noun or a pronoun.

The connective that introduces a restrictive clause is not always *that*. Many other words may have this function. It is the fact that the clause has the use of a mere adjectival or adverbial modifier that makes it restrictive.

Strike *when the iron is hot*. I know a bank *whereon the wild thyme grows*.

Here the first clause is a mere adverb in function, and the second an adjective. Both are therefore restrictive.

Coordinate Clauses.—The officer, *who is my cousin* (= and he is, etc.), was very attentive. His wealth, *which was great*, did not surpass that of his partner, *who was his brother*. Here *which* = *and it*, and *who* = *and he*.

The connective *who* or *which* may generally be resolved into *and*, *because*, *although*, etc. and some subject pronouns.

He was punished, *who* had done no wrong (*who* = *although he*).

By using *that* to introduce restrictive clauses, and *who* or *which* when the clauses are coordinate, *ambiguity* or *double meaning* is avoided.

We met the senator { *that bowed to us* (sometime before).
, *who bowed to us* (when we met him).
(*Who* = *and he*.)

A king { *that can do no wrong* is a myth.
 , *who can do no wrong*, will reign hereafter, and then
 justice will be done. (Meaning that he is living
 and will come to the throne.)

33. The following analyses will aid the student in understanding this matter:

1. (Words). (which) [are] the signs of ideas, [should be studied] carefully.
-

Here, *which* = *because they* or *for they*. The sentence, therefore, is *compound*; or it may be regarded as *simple*, with an independent parenthetical clause element. Although the clause *which are the signs of ideas*, is used to explain *words* and in a sense *modifies* its meaning, the clause is of equal rank *grammatically* with the clause, *Words should be studied carefully*. The sentence is therefore *compound*. The same is true of sentence (3) below; but (2) and (4) are *complex*, because their clauses are of *unequal* rank.

2. (Words) (that) [have been uttered] [can] never [be recalled]
-

3. (Time), (who) [is] a thief, [robs] us of our choicest treasures.
-

4. (Time) (that) [is] wasted sooner or later [brings] remorse.
-

34. The student must not understand that this use of *who* and *which* solely as coordinating and of *that* solely as restrictive is fully approved by all the latest and best grammarians. It is merely a very valuable distinction, actually made by many eminent authorities, and strongly urged for general adoption. That the usage will soon be fully accepted, there can be little doubt, for it enables us to avoid ambiguity and to escape an undesirable frequency in the use of *who* and *which*. The student is advised to give particular care and thought to the examples in Art. 41.

35. The Double Relative.—What is called the double relative. The reason of this is that it does the work of both antecedent and relative, being equivalent to *that which*, or *the thing which*, in which *that* or *thing* is the antecedent of *which*. This relative never represents *persons*, and the clause introduced by it has the value of a *noun*.

When *what* is compounded with *ever* and *soever*, it is called a **compound relative pronoun**, as are also the similar compounds of *ever* and *soever* with *who*, *which*, and *whose*.

The uses of *what* are illustrated in the following sentences:

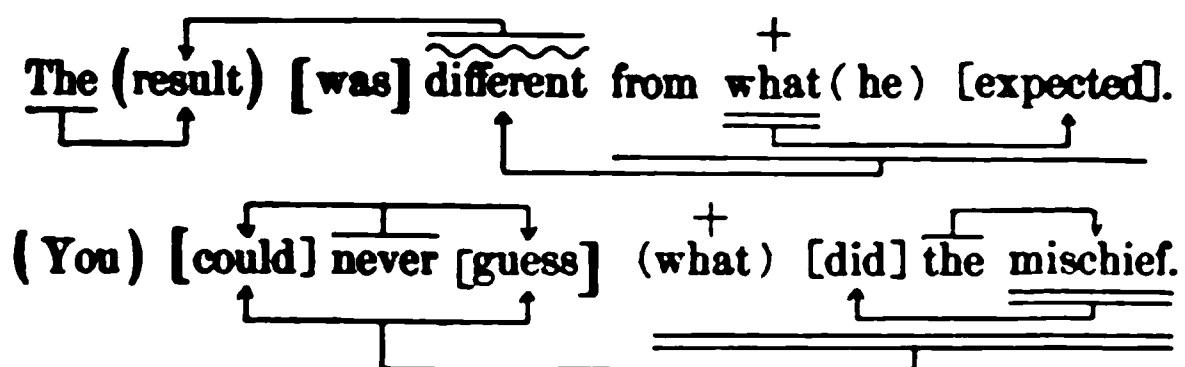
Describe **what** you found. *What* = $\left. \begin{array}{l} \text{that which} \\ \text{the thing which} \\ \text{the thing that} \end{array} \right\}$

Explain **what** caused the trouble. *What* = **that which**, etc.

From **what** he said, he is willing. *What* = **that which**, etc.

In the first sentence *what* fills the double relation of *object* of *describe* and of *found*; in the second it is *object* of *explain* and *subject* of *caused*; in the last, it is *object* of *from* and *object* of *said*.

In all these uses, *what* may be decomposed into an antecedent followed by a relative: **that which**, the **thing which**.



36. Substitutes for Relatives.—The words **as**, **but**, **when**, **where**, **whence**, **whither**, and **why**, as well as some of their compounds with *ever* and *soever*, are frequently used as relative pronouns.

As, preceded by *such* and *same*.

Select *such* men **as** you need. *Such men as* = the men *that*, or those men *that*.

Here *men* is the antecedent of the relative *that*.

You have the *same* failings $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{as} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$ he has shown.

But. After a *negative* clause **but** = **that** + **not**.

None **but** the brave = no man **that** is **not** brave.

When, in cases where a noun denoting **time** is the *antecedent*.

There is a *time* { **when**
 at which } men must, etc.

Where, when the antecedent denotes *place*.

He fell in the field { *where*
 on which } he fought.

Whither, after a clause denoting motion *to a place*.

We telegraphed to the office { *whither*
 to which } he had gone.

Why. The clause introduced by *why* as a relative is always an adjective modifier; as,

There is no reason { *why*
 for which } I should go.

Why I should go is an adjective modifier of *reason*.

INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS.

37. The interrogative pronouns are **who**, **which**, **what**, and **whether**, when used in asking questions.

Who inquires for **persons**, is either singular or plural, and is entirely indefinite—the person inquiring is in ignorance of the persons for whom he inquires; as,

Who { **was**
 were } hurt?

Interrogative *who* is declined in the same way as relative *who*: **Nom.**, *who*? **Poss.**, *whose*? **Obj.**, *whom*?

Whose, although it denotes possession, may, like the *absolute personal*, be used in either the *nominative* or the *objective case*; it is never in the *possessive case*.

Nom., *Whose* is it? **Obj.**, *Whose* did you send him?

Here the antecedent of *whose* may be *book*, for example.

Which inquires for **persons or things**, either one or

more, of a *class*; it may therefore be either *singular* or *plural* without change of form; as,

Which of the men $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$ ready? *Which* $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{is} \\ \text{are} \end{array} \right\}$ the best?

What applies only to **things**; as,

What do you want? *What* is truth?

Whether was formerly used with the force *Which of two*? as,

Whether is greater, the gold or the temple.

Whether as an interrogative pronoun is no longer used.

DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

38. Function of the Demonstrative Pronoun.—When *this* and *that*, with their plurals *these* and *those*, stand alone and have the functions of pronouns, they are called **demonstrative pronouns**.

This is mine if *that* is yours. *These* are good, but *those* are bad.

We have seen that when these words are joined to a noun to modify its meaning they are *pronominal adjectives*.

This *hat* is old; **that** *hat* is new. **These** *men* are idle; **those** *women* are industrious.

The demonstratives are used both of persons and things, and they are not inflected for *case*.

This and **these** refer to what is *nearer*; **that** and **those** refer to the *more distant*.

His work is better than $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{this (near)} \\ \text{that (distant)} \end{array} \right\}$ of yours. You may take *these*; I prefer *those*.

Some other words are employed as *demonstrative pronouns*. Words so used may always be known by the office they fill in a sentence. Among these are *such*, *so*, *thus*, *then*, *here*, *there*, etc.

You are a gentleman; behave as *such*. Since matters are $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{so} \\ \text{thus} \end{array} \right\}$, etc. $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{Here} \\ \text{This} \end{array} \right\}$ is more comfortable than $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{there} \\ \text{that} \end{array} \right\}$.

The **antecedent** of a demonstrative names that which is referred to by the pronoun.

This may be a **word** or a **clause**; as, **This** is very interesting. (*A book*, for example.) *To be, or not to be*; that is the question.

A **condition of things**; as, Must I endure all **this**? (The things that had been mentioned or referred to before.)

INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.

39. Function of the Indefinite Pronoun.—As its name indicates, an **indefinite pronoun** stands for names, but denotes the things themselves with vagueness and uncertainty. Some of them have something of the *pointing-out*, or *demonstrative* quality, but not enough of it to put them among the demonstratives. It is their *indefiniteness* in denoting the persons or things intended that is most noticeable.

Most of them are used also as adjectives, and some of them are regarded by many grammarians as mere nouns. But, inasmuch as all of them do in some measure the work of pronouns, it is better to call them such.

One and **other** are the best examples of indefinite pronouns. This is because their antecedents are *perfectly indefinite*, and because they are *inflected* for **number** and **case**.

	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>	<i>Singular.</i>	<i>Plural.</i>
<i>Nom.</i>	one	ones	other	others
<i>Poss.</i>	one's	ones'	other's	others'
<i>Obj.</i>	one	ones	other	others

One cannot help loving *one's* little *ones*. *Others'* wrongs impress us less than do our own wrongs. *One* can do what *one* likes with *one's* own.

Other pronouns belonging among the indefinites are the following when used without an associated noun: *none, any, some, each, every, either, neither, many, few, all, both, aught, naught, enough, such, else, somewhat, sundry, certain*; also *some, any, every*, and *no* compounded with *one*,

thing, and *body*; as, *somebody*, *nothing*, etc. When these elements are not united, the former is merely a pronominal adjective modifying the latter; as, *some one*, *no one*, *any one*.

Many authorities regard such words as *somebody*, *nothing*, *everybody*, *anything*, and other similar compounds as *nouns*. This is a matter of little importance, provided their pronominal function is distinctly perceived.

Each, **every**, **either**, and **neither** are generally classed as **distributive indefinite pronouns**. This is owing to the fact that, although they imply a whole group, they require that the units making up the group shall be considered *separately*.

Each decided to make the voyage. *Everybody* has erred at some time.

Such and **other** are called **comparatives**, because they are used in comparing; as,

This is *such* as will please you. That is *other* than it should be.

Here, that which *such* denotes is offered as something that has been compared with others that may not please.

Each other and **one another** are called **reciprocals**—they have a *mutual* sense.

They hate *each other* = The former hates the latter, and the latter the former = They hate; *each* hates the *other*. There must be only *two* when *each other* is used.

They helped *one another* = They helped; *one* helped *another*. There are always more than *two* referred to by *one another*.

40. EXERCISE.—Point out and classify the pronouns in the following selections; tell also what each modifies:

1. They and I visited the park yesterday and **we were much** pleased with its fine appearance.

2. Children learn early to distinguish between *mine* and *thine*.

3. At last, like one who for delay seeks a **vain excuse**, he rode away.

4. One must not expect many to be right when **all are likely** to be wrong.

5. These are such as our fathers used long **before we were** born.

6. 'Tis said that people ought to guard their noses,
Who thrust them into matters none of theirs.
7. Few, few shall part where many meet.
8. Nor is a true soul ever born for naught:
Wherever any such hath lived and died,
There hath been something for true freedom wrought.
9. * * * * * then I held you fast,
And all stood back, and none my right denied,
And forth we walked.
10. I saw the boy, who was taking a ride on the pony that I gave him.
11. What in me is dark, illumine.
12. "Shall I have naught that is fair?" saith he;
"Have naught but the bearded grain?"
13. The earth yearns toward the sun for light,
The stars all tremble toward each other,
And every moon that shines tonight
Hangs trembling on an elder brother.
14. Whatsoever a man soweth, that shall he also reap.
15. Silver and gold have I none; but such as I have give I thee.

41. EXERCISE.—In the following, determine the proper relative, and explain the difference in meaning when the relative clause may be taken either as restrictive or as coordinating. Punctuate properly by setting off with commas clauses that begin with *who* or *which*. Those that are restrictive omit the commas.

1. The evil $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{which} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ men do lives after them.
2. The best boy $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{whom} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ you have is the one $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{whom} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ I want.
3. The soldier $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{who} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ is his country's defender should be ready to die for her.
4. These documents $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{which} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ I commit to your care are very important.
5. The teacher $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ is wise omits punishment $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ is degrading.

6. The Chinaman $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ came into the country through Canada was arrested as soon as he crossed the line $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{which} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ separates the two countries.

7. The earth $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ is a sphere $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ is flattened at the poles is nearly 8,000 miles in diameter.

8. In manners $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ characterize the gentleman he was superior to all $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{whom} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ he met

9. I noticed a lady with a lap-dog $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{who} \\ \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ was out for an airing.

10. The clock $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ keeps such excellent time was the property of my grandfather $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ died a year ago.

11. The next vacation $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ we spend at the seashore should restore our health $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{which} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ we have lost.

12. The boy enlisted for the war $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ his father greatly disapproved.

13. Libraries $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ are destined to destruction by fire always contain literary treasures $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ cannot be replaced.

14. The pyramids $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{which} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ were built of stone are still in a good state of preservation.

15. The lady $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{who} \\ \text{that} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ accompanied the senator from Utah was his wife $\left\{ \begin{smallmatrix} \text{that} \\ \text{whom} \end{smallmatrix} \right\}$ he had married a year before.

42. EXERCISE.—By means of diagrams, analyze the following sentences:

1. As he sowed, some fell by the wayside.
2. What did you pay for the horse that you sold to me?
3. One cannot always obtain one's just dues in this world.
4. Words that are primitive have no other form that is simpler.
5. His own father would not have known him in that guise.

6. I speak not to disprove what Brutus spoke.
7. They that have done this deed are honorable.
8. I am no orator, but a plain blunt man that loves my friend.
9. The usher sat remote from all, a melancholy man.
10. I have done the State some service, and they know it.
11. I knew that my secret was one that earth refused to keep.
12. Joy went with my children one and all, and tuned their voices with song.
13. We, the people of the United States, do hereby ordain and establish this Constitution.
14. Know then this truth—enough for man to know—
Virtue alone is happiness below.
15. Most men, judged by their manner of governing children, have never themselves been children.
16. Fast he creepeth on, though he wears no wings,
And a stanch old heart has he.
17. In times like these, when the passions are stimulated, truth and honor are forgotten by almost everybody.
18. His funniest after-dinner stories, which made everybody laugh, were often made to order.
19. Humanity, with all its fears,
With all its hopes of future years,
Is hanging breathless on thy fate.

43. Parsing the Pronoun.—To parse the pronoun, the student should state the following:

1. The *class* and *subclass* in which it belongs. It may be *personal* (simple or compound), *relative* (simple, double, or compound), *interrogative*, *demonstrative*, *indefinite* (distributive, comparative, reciprocal). The antecedent should be mentioned, and reasons given for each conclusion.
2. The *inflection* if there be any—*gender*, *person*, *number*, *case*, and why.
3. *Its use* and *relations* in full.

44. Model for Written Parsing.—The following model can be made very useful for written parsing.

Only to a few of us did the master reveal the secret that he had so long concealed.

Tell me what it is that causes the tides.

Pronoun	Class.	Gender	Person	Number	Case.	Relation or Syntax
few	indef.	com.	third	plur.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>to</i>
us	pers.	com.	first	plur.	obj.	obj. of prep. <i>of</i> .
that	rel.	neu.	third	sing.	obj.	obj. of <i>had concealed</i> . Connects <i>secret</i> with <i>he had</i> , etc.
he	pers.	masc.	third	sing.	nom.	subj. of <i>had concealed</i> .
me	pers.	com.	first	sing.	obj.	obj. of <i>to understood</i> .
what	doub. rel.	neu.	third	sing.	obj. + nom.	— <i>that which that</i> obj. of <i>tell</i> , <i>which</i> , pred nom of <i>is</i> .
it	pers.	neu.	third	sing.	nom.	subj. of <i>is</i> .
that	rel.	neu.	third	sing.	nom.	subj. of <i>causes</i> .

45. EXERCISE.—Parse in writing all the pronouns given in the first twelve sentences in exercise, Art. 42.

TABLE OF PRONOUNS.

PRONOUNS	CLASSES	1. <i>Personal</i>	Simple.
			Compound.
		2. <i>Relative</i>	Simple.
			Double.
			Compound.
	PROPERTIES	3. <i>Interrogative</i> .	
		4. <i>Demonstrative</i> .	
		5. <i>Indefinite</i>	Distributive.
			Comparative.
			Reciprocal.
	PROPERTIES	Gender.	[Only certain personal pronouns in the singular have gender.]
		Person.	
		Number.	
		Case.	

GRAMMAR.

(PART 5.)

THE VERB.

1. The Function of the Verb.—We have already learned that in every sentence the verb is the **predicating word**. It is meant by this that the verb is the word by means of which it is possible:

1. To say, { The earth *is* a sphere.
tell, or declare; as, { The storm *will* rage fiercely.

2. To ask a question; as, { *Is* he a scholar?
 { *Has* the boy *arrived*?

3. To command, { *Be* quiet. *Proceed.* *Walk* slowly.
entreat, or wish; as, { *Excuse* me. *Pity* the blind.
 { *Thy* will *be* done.

Every word in a *statement* is more or less necessary to the completeness of the statement; the same is true of the words in a sentence that expresses a *question* or a *command*. But the verb is the one word that cannot be omitted without making nonsense of what remains—without destroying the sentence. It is impossible to express a complete thought by words unless there is one of them that has the office of a verb. By this fact, grammarians were led to call this part of speech the **verb**, from the Latin word *verbum*, meaning “a word.” They intended to imply that the verb is the **word**—*the all-important element*—in speech.

The verb is *named*, therefore, from considering the importance of the part it fills in the sentence—from its use.

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It is also *defined* from the same standpoint—that of its *use* in the sentence; not, however, from the *importance* of that use or function, but from the *kind* of use. Considered, then, from the office it fills,—its *function*,—the verb *tells*, it *questions*, it *commands*—in one word, it **predicates**.

2. What It Is That Verbs Express.—In order that the student may understand the real nature of the verb, and the reasons for the classifications that are to follow, it is necessary to consider more fully just what this part of speech does in the sentence.

The most important matter with which language can be concerned is **action**—the various changes and movements and doings of things material and immaterial. In the expression of thought many words are required, but the most useful of them all are the “action words.” Now, action is of many kinds, and it is sometimes not easy to see that a certain verb really does express action.

Physical action is recognized without difficulty, generally by the aid of the senses. Examples of verbs denoting this kind of action are *walk, push, write, skate, build*.

Mental and **emotional** action is almost as readily recognized as that expressed by verbs denoting sensible motions. Such are *think, remember, admire, consider, judge, decide*.

It is less easy to see that real action or change is indicated by such verbs as *rest, lie* (to recline), *sleep, decay, grow*, and many others like them; but, most difficult of all, are a few verbs called **neuter** verbs, such as *seem, appear, feel*, and especially *is* in its various forms.

The *neuter* verbs are thought by many *not to express action* at all, but a *state* or *condition* of that which is named by the subject. A little reflection, however, will make it clear that they express *action* and at the same time denote a *state* or *condition* of the actor.

When it is said,

He seems sick,

there are certain *changes* in the usual appearance of the person in question, *signs* that speak as plainly to the eye as

the tongue can to the ear. In other words, certain parts of the person are *doing* something when he *seems* or *looks* or *appears* in a manner that reveals some *state* of his mind or body. His general bearing, the color of his skin, the luster of his eyes, and many other agencies are by a kind of *action* making known that he is in a *state* described by *sick*.

In the sentence,

Troy was,

there is *action* as well as *state* expressed. In order that it may be said that anything *is* or *was*, there must be a certain *going on* from moment to moment. When this *showing* or *seeming*, this *continuing* or *changing*, ceases, some other condition of being and action takes its place, and is shown and recognized in a similar manner.

In short, it appears that **all verbs express action of some kind.**

3. Action and State.—Every verb, then, indicates some kind and degree of activity. But this is not all. It is true also that **every verb expresses or implies a state or condition of the actor or agent.** Thus, when it is said,

The boy walks, thinks, sleeps, and grows,

each of the verbs denotes a special kind of activity as well as a certain accompanying state. The boy not only performs the act of walking, but he is in a state or condition such that he may be called *a walking boy*. He is in a condition of *walking*, of *thinking*, of *sleep*, of *growth*. When the boy *walks* or *thinks*, we notice the *action*, but the *state* is scarcely ever considered; when he *sleeps* and *grows*, we notice the *state* rather than the *action*. If, however, we say,

The boy is good,

the species of *action* that we call *being* or *existence* is not thought of—our attention is engaged only by a *state* or *condition* of *goodness* in the boy.

Hence all verbs might be arranged in a series beginning with verbs that make *action prominent* and *state slight* or

unnoticeable, and ending with those in which *state* is the conspicuous feature and the *action* is obscure or unnoticed.

I	walk shout think try hate reason	II	sleep grow repose sit lie decay	III	feel seem taste smell exist be
Action (<i>State implied.</i>)		Action and State		State (<i>Action implied.</i>)	

4. Verbs Active and Verbs Neuter.—It is evident that all verbs may be divided into two great classes—**active verbs** and **neuter verbs**. The dividing line between these two classes cannot be fixed with any definiteness, for it is sometimes difficult to determine whether it is the *action* or the *state* that is more prominent. Besides, a verb may be used as *active* in one sentence and as *neuter* in another.

Active.—He *sleeps* noisily. We *felt* our way carefully. *Keep* your promise loyally.

Neuter.—The babe *sleeps* safe in its mother's arms. The poor woman *felt* sad. *Keep* quiet.

When a verb is *neuter*, it will take an adjective to denote the *state* expressed; when *active*, the indicated action may be modified by an adverb. This is illustrated in the sentences given above.

A verb that expresses both action and state in nearly equal degrees may have with it both an *adjective* and an *adverb*; the one denotes the condition of the actor and the other indicates the *time* or the *place* of occurrence, or the *manner* of the action. With verbs of this kind, the adverbial modifier is usually a *phrase* or a *clause*.

1. (We) [shall] soon [arrive] at home safe.
2. How sweet the (moonlight) [sleeps] upon this bank.
3. The (moon) [looks] wan and pale after the (sun) (rises).

In (1), *soon* and *at home* modify the meaning of *shall arrive*; *safe* is a predicate adjective denoting the condition of the subject after the action is performed.

In (2), *upon this bank* tells where the action of *sleeping* takes place—it is an adverbial phrase; *sweet* is a predicate adjective denoting the state of moonlight. This will be better seen if the sentence is transposed—The moonlight sleeps (how) sweet upon this bank.

In (3), the adverbial modifier denoting place is a clause—*after the sun rises*.

5. EXERCISE.—By means of diagrams analyze the following sentences

1. The sun rose warm and bright above the desolate arctic scenery.
2. Bright and fierce and fickle is the South,
 And dark and true and tender is the North.
3. For still my voice rang false and hollow when I sang.
4. The jewel on her brow burned clear, a mystic star
5. During the entire day the captive sat in his cage, sad and songless.
6. Every pupil sat erect at his desk and went through his exercises, patient and obedient.
7. Long I stood there, wondering, fearing, doubting.
8. The skies grow dark and glare red and angry.
9. Fresh from the fountains of the wood a rivulet of the valley came.
10. He bore himself confident and fearless before his enemies.
11. She opened the door wide for us, and waited, quiet but attentive, for what we might say.
12. The days seemed strangely dull and lonesome; the nights dragged dark and fearful.

6. Classes of Active Verbs.—The action expressed by a verb may be of a kind that involves only the actor, as when we say,

The boy	{	walks. thinks. swims.
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Again, the action may begin with the actor and end with something that receives the action or is affected by it.

The boy	{	killed a bird. flew his kite. solved an example.
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In these examples, the action performed by the boy operates on or affects something besides the boy himself—a *bird*, a *kite*, an *example*. These words are called the *direct objects*, or merely the *objects*, of the verbs. Verbs so used are called **transitive**, because the action seems to *pass over* (*transire*, “to go over”) the verb, from the name of the actor to the name of something that receives the action. Not always, however, do the subject and the object stand with the verb between them, but the name *transitive* seems to imply that they do. The following sentences have these two parts on the same side of the verb, but this arrangement is irregular and poetical.

Arms and the man I sing. Rivers they forded and lofty mountains they climbed.

Here *arms* and *man* are the objects of *sing* (celebrate in a poem); also, *rivers* and *mountains* are the objects respectively of the transitive verbs *forded* and *climbed*.

All active verbs not so used are called **intransitive**, for the reason that the action does not *go over*, so to speak, from an actor to a receiver.

<i>Active Verbs</i>	{	Transitive. —The girl washed the <i>dishes</i> and swept the <i>floor</i> .
		Intransitive. —The clock ran for a time and then stopped .

Whether a verb is *transitive* or *intransitive* depends entirely on the use that is made of it, for a verb ordinarily transitive may be used without an object. In such cases the verb is *intransitive*.

Men **build**, but time **destroys**. Leah **washed** and **combed**.

The intention here is to say of *men* only that they perform the act of *building*, very much as we might say of *birds* that they perform the act of *flying*. To specify what they build is apart from the purpose. The verb being *used intransitively* must be regarded as *being intransitive* in this use of it, although *build* is generally followed by an object.

The subject may be omitted and yet the verb may be

transitive; for, in an imperative sentence, the subject is regularly absent, but it is clearly implied.

He worked hard and (subject implied) **saved** *money*. (Subject) **ring** the *bells*, and (subject) **fire** the *guns*, and (subject) **fling** your starry *banners* out.

Definition.—*A transitive verb is a verb that expresses action represented as received by some person or thing.*

Definition.—*An intransitive verb is a verb that expresses action not represented as received by any person or thing.*

Definition.—*A reflexive verb is a transitive verb of which the subject and the object denote the same person or thing.*

The *question* answers *itself*. They have injured only *themselves*.

All verbs not actually used as *neuter*, and of these there are few, belong in one or the other of these two great classes; that is, they are either **active-transitive** or **active-intransitive**.

7. Transitive Verbs, Active and Passive.—Transitive verbs are used in two forms:

1. *The Active Form.*—In this use of the transitive verb, the subject denotes the **actor**, and the name of the *receiver* of the action is the direct object of the verb.

The hunter **killed** a deer. David **slew** Goliath.

Hunter names both the subject and the actor.

Deer names both the object and the receiver of the action.

2. *The Passive Form.*—In the passive form of a transitive verb, the subject denotes the **receiver** of the action, and the *actor*, if denoted at all, is represented by the object of the preposition *by*.

A *deer* **was killed** by the *hunter*. *Goliath* **was slain** by *David*.

Deer names both the subject of the verb and the receiver of the action.

Hunter names both the **object** of the preposition *by* and the **actor** (not the *subject*).


Very frequently we may wish to say that something has been done, and yet we may either not know by whom it was done, or may not wish to state. Sometimes, too, it is of no interest by what agency the act was performed.

Our *silver* **has been stolen** (by—*unknown*). The *accused* **was arrested** yesterday (by—*unimportant*). This *sediment* **has been brought** hither from the uplands (by—*natural agencies* that need not be specified).

A verb is to be regarded as transitive only when it has an object actually expressed, or so definitely implied that to express it would be awkward and unnecessary; as, The farmer **dug** (object) and **sold** some *potatoes*. Here the verb *dug* is transitive, since its object is clearly implied, and is omitted only because to express it would be very awkward. If the verb is in the *passive* form, it is *transitive*, whatever may be the other elements that are missing; for only a transitive verb can take this form.

The following diagrams will show where the action *begins*, and upon what it *operates* and *ends*, in these two transitive constructions:

Transitive Forms.—

Active.—“Our visitor  **RELATED** the story with much effect.”

Passive.—“The story  **WAS RELATED** with much effect by our visitor.”

8. Other Transitive Forms.—There are several peculiar cases of the transitive construction:

1. Some intransitive verbs may be used transitively when *compounded with a preposition*. (Prepositions so used are really adverbs.)

Intransitive. -They *laughed* at us. The people *stared* at the strangers. The teacher *looked* over our work.

Transitive. -We were *laughed at* by them. The strangers were *stared at* by the people. The teacher *overlooked* our work. Our work *was overlooked* by the teacher.

Such constructions as *We were laughed at* by them are not really transitive; for *at*, in *laughed at*, is only an *adverb*. Many excellent grammarians, however, insist upon regarding *laughed at* as a compound verb, and this is an easy method of explaining the matter.

2. When *four elements* enter the construction—the three already mentioned and an *indirect object*.

Active.—They *taught him* grammar. (*Him* = *to him*.)

Passive.—Grammar was taught (*to*) *him* by them.

When a noun or a pronoun is used in the objective case to denote that *to* or *for* which anything is or is done, it is the *indirect object* of the verb that expresses the action or being.

They gave *us* (= *to us*) *bread*.

I bought *him* (= *for him*) a *pony*.

Here *us* and *him* are *indirect objects*, and *bread* and *pony*, *direct objects*.

A very erroneous construction derived from the last is, He was taught wisdom by experience, He was shown his error by the misfortunes that followed. *He* should be *him* or *to him*, and the sentences should read, Wisdom was taught *to him* by experience. His error was shown *to him* by, etc. The error is very bad and is of frequent occurrence. But the active construction, Experience taught him wisdom, Misfortunes showed him, etc., is to be preferred to the passive form. It should be added that this objectionable construction is used by many good writers, and that it is approved by some reputable grammatical authorities.

3. When the *actor* implied is *indefinite*. In such cases, the *actor* or *cause* may be regarded as being in external circumstances or influences, or in mental preference or inclination.

I *am decided* (by existing facts) to retreat. He *was inclined* (by nature, by instinct) to evade questions. I am resolved (by—) to try.

Verbs so used are such as denote some form of *mental action* or *state*; as, *bent*, *disposed*, *resolved*, *grieved*, *hurt*, *determined*, etc.

Instead of regarding this as a true passive construction, it is perhaps better to treat it as a case of the verb *be* followed by a verbal with the force of a predicate adjective.

He was { *angry.*
disposed.
resolved.

The (general) [was] inclined to attack.

Here *inclined* is a *verbal* with the exact value of a predicate adjective; just as if the sentence were written thus:

The general was { *eager*
glad
reluctant } to attack.

4. *Cognate Objects*.—Some intransitive verbs take objects *similar* in meaning to the verb (*cognate*, “born together”).

The whistles *blew* a *blast*. He *dreamed* a *dream*. The judge *drank* a *draft* from the spring. He *saw* a *sight*.

The passive form of this construction is generally awkward, and should be avoided.

A sight was seen by him. A draft from the spring *was drunk* by the judge.

9. EXERCISE.—Analyze by diagrams the following sentences:

1. If you talk nonsense, you must expect few listeners.
2. We are surrounded on all sides by mystery.
3. The playful children turned the house upside down.
4. He was wounded in the arm by a rifle ball.
5. Santiago was surrendered to the American forces by the Spaniards.
6. Admiral Dewey's victory over the Spanish fleet in Manila Bay was followed by the cession of the Philippine Islands.
7. He was influenced by the advice of his lawyer.
8. Kings are no longer able to prevent the onward march of thought.
9. Lighted by gems shall its dungeon be,
 But the pride of its beauty shall kneel to me.
10. And he who scorns the least of Nature's works
 Is thenceforth exiled and shut out from all.

INFLECTIONS OF THE VERB.

10. Conjugation.—As we have seen, *nouns* and *pronouns* are inflected or changed in form in consequence of some change in meaning or use. For a similar reason, verbs also are inflected. The inflection of nouns and pronouns is called *declension*; that of verbs, *conjugation*. This word means *a yoking or joining together*; that is, all the different inflections of a verb are so arranged as to be seen *together* and the changes to be more easily recognized and compared.

Verbs have four inflections: (1) for **mode**; (2) for **tense**; (3) for **number**; (4) for **person**.

Definition.—*Conjugation is an orderly arrangement of the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons of a verb.*

MODE.

11. The Function of Mode.—The following sentence,

I walk,

takes before the mind the form of a mere *statement*; that is, the *guise* or **mode** of the thought is that of a *statement* or *declaration*. The thought is merely stated or *indicated*.

By the help of certain other words, the thought may be expressed as *conditional* or *dependent* on something else—it assumes before the mind another *fashion* or **mode**.

Even if }
Unless } I make haste, I may be late.

Again, the thought must be conceived or recognized as being in the **mode** or dress of a *command* or an *imperative* in the following:

Walk thou. Be quiet. Make haste.

Or, the action or state may take the form of mere *mention*, without special reference to any *person* as acting or being. This is a case of action or being *in general*, as a mere *abstract noun*, and without *predication*.

Walking is exercise. **To live** is to think.

These different attitudes that a complete *thought* or a mere verbal *idea* assumes before the mind are **modes**; and, since these differences depend largely on the **form** of the verb and the way in which it is used, the verb itself is said to be in this or that *mode*. It is, however, generally the *sentence* that really has mode; but the word is applied in grammar only to the *verb*. Mode is to a sentence very much as a uniform is to an official of any kind—it is the garb worn before the mind by a sentence. A thought appears at one time in the dress of a statement, and at another time in that of a question; now as a *command*, again as a *condition*; etc.

Definition.—*Mode is the form or use of a verb by which is shown the sentential construction employed to express the thought.*

Mode comes very near to being only another classification of sentences with respect to *use*. From *use* or *function*, sentences are *declarative*, *imperative*, and *interrogative*. From the *form* they assume before the mind, — the *verbal dress* in which they express their thought, — sentences, or, rather, the verbs they contain, are said to be in the **indicative** mode when they indicate or *declare*, or when they express a *question*; in the *imperative* mode when the sentence expresses a *command*; etc.

12. Modes are Four in Number. — There is no *general* agreement among grammatical authorities as to the *number* of modes in English, but the greater weight of present opinion is undoubtedly in favor of *four* modes.

These modes are: (1) the **indicative**, (2) the **imperative**, (3) the **subjunctive**, (4) the **infinitive**.

13. The Indicative Mode.—The word *indicate* means to "point out," or "show." When a thought is expressed in the form or guise that *affirms* or *denies*, or in that of an *inquiry*, the predicating verb is in the **indicative** mode.

The earth *is* a planet. He *will* surely come. Does he understand?

Again, when the thought expressed in a conditional clause

is taken or meant as true, and not as a mere *supposition*, the verb is in the indicative mode.

If he *is* wise, he *is* cruel. (Here it is granted that he is wise.) If he *was* a great traveler, so also *was* I.

The truth or falsity of an ordinary statement, however, has nothing whatever to do with the mode of its verb. The verbs in the following sentences are all in the indicative mode:

The sun *rises* at noon. Dragon teeth *were* once *sown*, and men in complete armor *sprang* from them. The earth *is* an immense cube.

The indicative is the only mode in which a *question* or an independent *statement* can be expressed.

Definition.—*The indicative mode is that form or use of a verb by which a thought is predicated as a statement, a question, or a condition assumed as true.*

14. The Imperative Mode.—The word *imperative* means “commanding,” but in grammar its meaning is extended to include every use of the verb between *commanding* and mere *permission*.

Make ready, *take* aim, *fire*. *Come* on; *let* us set out. *Pity* the poor. *Be* still, sad heart, and *cease* repining. *Go* in peace.

It is by *use* and not by *form* that the imperative mode of a verb is shown; for the imperative form *make*, in the sentence, *Make ready*, is unchanged in the indicative sentence, *They make ready*. It is the *use* that is different.

The imperative verb regularly omits its subject. This subject denotes the person or thing commanded, and is generally the pronoun *you*. When the *name* of the person commanded is used, it is independent by address. Thus, in *Come, John*, the sentence in full is,

(*You*) *Come, John.*

Definition.—*The imperative mode is that use of a verb by which a sentence is shown to be a command, an exhortation, an entreaty, or a mere permission.*

15. The Subjunctive Mode.—This mode is so named because it is found only in *subjoined* or dependent clauses. The student must not assume, however, that the predicating verb in every subordinate clause is in this mode.

The subjunctive mode is used:

1. When **doubt** or **denial** is expressed by a subordinate clause; as,

If I *were* sure of his honesty, I would engage him. *Had he been killed*, his father would have died of grief. (This is equivalent to *denying* that he was killed.) If the day *had been* fair, I should not be here.

But, if the conditional clause expresses a **certainty** or an **admitted fact**, the verb is in the indicative mode; as,

If he *is* a gentleman (which is granted), why did he not explain his action? If he *calls* every day, be assured that he *has* a motive for so doing. (Here, *is*, *calls*, and *has* are indicative.)

2. To express a **wish**—a desire that something *might be* that *is not*; as,

Would she **were** mine = I wish *that* she **were** mine. Thy deeds be upon thee = I wish *that* thy deeds **may be** upon thee.

3. To express a mere **supposition**; as,

If I *wishes were* horses, beggars might ride. *Were the moon made* of green cheese, the milky way could be explained.

4. To denote a **future uncertainty**; as,

If it *snow*, I shall be surprised. If he *return*, we shall kill the fatted calf.

5. To express an **intention** not yet carried out; as,

The judge directs that you *be required* to pay the costs.

In all these cases, the subjoined clause expresses something that has no existence in reality, is contrary to the truth, or is only conceived. The subjunctive mode is the mode of doubt, imagination, and uncertainty; the indicative is the mode of actuality, of certainty.

16. Indicative and Subjunctive Modes Contrasted.

The following examples will aid the student in distinguishing between the indicative and subjunctive modes:

<i>Subjunctive Mode.</i>	<i>Indicative Mode.</i>
If twice four <i>were</i> ten, my change would be correct.	If twice five <i>is</i> ten, my change is not correct.
If twice four <i>be</i> ten, my change is correct.	
If the sky <i>fall</i> , we shall catch sparrows.	If the mail <i>is</i> heavy, we <i>put</i> on more help.
Would that night or Blucher <i>were come</i> .	It <i>was</i> as dark as if night <i>had come</i> .
Unless ye <i>repent</i> , there is no forgiveness.	Unless he <i>is</i> here, you must <i>wait</i> until he <i>comes</i> .
<i>Should</i> any soldier <i>absent</i> himself, he shall be punished.	He <i>is</i> a coward, if he <i>is</i> a braggart (as is admitted).
<i>Were</i> the sun not intensely hot, all life would disappear from the earth.	If it <i>was</i> a counterfeit (as is not denied), you <i>were</i> arrested justly.
Though I <i>were</i> dead, I should hear your voice.	Though he <i>was</i> dead, his influence <i>lived</i> .

There are many nice distinctions in the subjunctive construction, and many disputed points. These distinctions, however, occur for the most part in the writings of an earlier time; for the subjunctive mood is but little used by modern writers, being displaced by the *indicative*. It cannot be said, therefore, that sentences like the following are grammatically erroneous, for we are constantly meeting such in the works of our best modern writers:

If I *was* taken ill, I would call Dr. Brown. If it *rains* to-morrow, I will not go. Though it *thunders*, he cannot hear it. If twice six *is* ten, you owe me nothing.

Definition.—*The subjunctive mode is that form or use of a verb by which a subordinate clause expresses something as doubtful or merely supposed.*

17. EXERCISE.—Tell the mode of the verbs in the following sentences—indicative, imperative, or subjunctive—and give reasons:

1. Had he been killed, I should never have forgiven myself.
2. Though his coat were of rubber, it would not keep him dry.
3. Though he wears a rubber coat, he is frequently wet.
4. Unless he come for the money, I shall not pay him.
5. Were I not Alexander, I would be Diogenes.
6. Had it been a spirit, it would have been invisible.
7. Though I was in fault, he should have pardoned me.

8. Except he find the foot of the rainbow, he will get no pot of gold.
9. Lest he forget his errand, I shall give him written instructions.
10. Provided he go rapidly, he will be there in time.
11. Take heed, lest any man deceive you.
12. If you grant that he is a scholar, I shall claim that he should have the place.
13. If there were a Panama canal, South America would be an island.
14. Although the lake was artificial, it looked as picturesque as if it were natural.
15. If he do but devote himself to his business, he will succeed.

18. The Infinitive Mode. The word *infinitive* means "not limited." This mode of the verb is so named because it takes no change of form in consequence of any change in the *person* and *number* of its subject. In the case of the other modes, especially the *indicative*, such changes occur, and they are for that reason called *finite* modes; the *verbs* also are finite—they are *limited* or modified for *person* and *number*. The following illustrations will make this difference clear:

Indicative Mode.

LIMITED	{	Sing.—1st per.	I go.
		2d per.	{ Thou goest. You go.
		3d per.	He goes.
		Plur.—1st per.	We go.

Infinitive Mode.

UNLIMITED	{	Sing. 1st per.	He told me to go.
		2d per.	He told { thee you } to go.
		3d per.	He told him to go.
		Plur.—1st per.	He told us to go.

Here it will be noticed that *to go* assumes no change—is *unlimited*—for any changes in the person or number of the subject; while the *indicative* does change, and is therefore a *limited* or *finite* mode. In contrast with the infinitive, all the other modes are called *finite* modes. It should be added that the verbal nouns and adjectives are, like the infinitive, *unlimited*—not subject to change—for person and number.

They are real *infinitives*; but by most authorities the name has been confined to the forms with *to*, either expressed or understood.

The infinitive does not *predicate*, as do the other modes; but it names *an act* very much as a common noun names *a thing*—it is generally a kind of verbal noun.

Life	} is pleasant.	He desired	} <i>action.</i> <i>to act.</i>
Living			
To live			

The preposition *to* generally precedes the infinitive, and is called its *sign*, but it is not a *part* of the verb, although it is treated as such by many grammarians. It is usually omitted after the verbs *may, can, must, shall, will, do, bid, dare, make, see, hear, feel*, and many others.

You *may* (*to*) go. They *saw* him (*to*) finish the work. He *need* not (*to*) come.

Definition. -- *The infinitive mode is that use of a verb by which action or state is represented, not as predicated, but as merely named. The sign of the infinitive is the preposition to, expressed or implied.*

19. Forms of the Infinitive.—*Intransitive* verbs have two infinitives, and *transitive* verbs have two **active** and two **passive** forms of the infinitive.

Intransitive.—1. *To walk*, or *To be walking*. 2. *To have walked*, or *To have been walking*.

Transitive	{	Active: 1. <i>To write</i> , or <i>To be writing</i> . 2. <i>To have</i>
		<i>written</i> , or <i>To have been writing</i> .
		Passive: 1. <i>To be written</i> . 2. <i>To have been written</i> .

20. Two Kinds of Predication.—The word *predication* when used in grammar without a modifying word is applied, in its full sense, only to *finite* verbs. They assert or deny action or state; they formally state or deny that something **is** or **does** something or other, or they express an inquiry **as to whether** something or other **is** or **does this** or that.

The boy **is** *studious*. If the earth **revolves**. The sky **is** not a dome. **Study** your lesson. **Does** he see us? **Is** he not **going**?

This kind of predication is real—actually made—and belongs to verbs in the indicative, imperative, and subjunctive modes.

But the action or state expressed by the *infinitive* is not asserted, but *taken for granted* or *assumed*, just as is done in the case of the ordinary *verbal* noun. Thus, if we should say, *John writes*, we have actually declared that some one called *John* performs an act expressed by *writes*. But in, *I told John to write*, or, *I enjoyed writing*, the action expressed by *to write* or by *writing* is not *asserted* but *assumed*. The idea of action goes with these verb forms as a *part of their meaning*, and not as a formal assertion. Very much like this difference is that between the expressions, *John's hat* and *John owns the hat*. In the first expression, *ownership* by *John* is assumed or taken for granted as something not denied; in the second, *ownership* is predicated or distinctly stated. All verb forms not belonging among the finite forms have this *assumed predication*. The latter have *actual predication*.

21. Elements That May Be Associated With the Infinitive.—Although, in the case of the infinitive, predication is only assumed, this mode of a verb may have:

1. *A Subject*.—This may be expressed, or it may be implied more or less distinctly.

We invited *him* to come. They persuaded *us* to remain. John was told (*him*) to go (to go *himself*).

In the first sentence, *him* is both the *object* of the finite verb *invited* and the *subject* of the infinitive *to come*.

The subject of the infinitive is always in the *objective case*.

2. *An Object*.

We sent him to see the *play*. For us to have defeated our *enemies* served to honor our *country*.

The words *play*, *enemies*, and *country* are all objects of preceding infinitives.

3. *A Predicate Noun, Pronoun, or Adjective.*

We knew her *to be* a teacher. They declared the visitor *to be* him. Dare *to be* true.

The noun or pronoun so used is in the *objective* case.

4. *An Adverbial Modifier.*—This may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

To live temperately is *to live* in harmony with the laws of our being. It is important *to strike* when the iron is hot. We knew the letter *to have been written* while he was secretary.

In each of these sentences, the element in black-faced type is a modifier of the infinitive in Italic.

22. Functions of the Infinitive.—An infinitive may have the office:

1. *Of a Noun.*—As a noun, the infinitive may be the *subject* or *object* of a verb, a *predicate noun*, in *apposition*, *independent by pleonasm*, or it may be the *object of a preposition*.

To die (*subject*) for one's country is sweet. He *tried to escape* (*object*). All we ask is **to see** him. (*To see* is a predicate noun and denotes the same thing as *all we ask*.) We are all under the same *obligation—to help* the helpless. (*To help* is a noun in apposition to *obligation*.) **To die**; is that merely to sleep longer than usual? (*To die* is a noun independent by pleonasm.) *Except to submit*, we have no choice. (*To submit* is the object of the preposition *except*.)

2. *Of an Adjective.*—As an adjective, the infinitive may modify the meaning of a noun or a pronoun *directly*, or it may do so as a *predicate adjective*.

They received *bread to eat*. (*To eat* modifies *bread*, just as if the expression were *eatable bread*.) He seems **to have suffered** much. (*To have suffered* is the predicate adjective after the neuter verb *seems*.) They showed a *willingness to work* for a living. (*To work* modifies the noun *willingness*.)

3. *Of an Adverb.*

A man *should eat to live*, not *live to eat*. They are almost **ready to depart** for the west. I hoped **to be able to go to see** my teacher.

In the last sentence, *to go* is an adverbial modifier of *able*, and *to see* modifies *to go*.

23. EXERCISE.—Study the models and analyze in a similar way the sentences that follow them:

1. (To have apologized) [was] to have admitted
+ that (we) [were] wrong.
2. The (soldiers) [were] extremely eager to make an attack.
3. In her attic window the staff (she) [set].
To show that one (heart) [was] loyal yet.
4. To die; (that) [is] to fall asleep and not wake again.
5. Each morning sees some task begin,
Each evening sees it close.
6. Pause not to dream of the future before you.
7. And when above the surges
They saw his crest appear,
All Rome sent forth a rapturous cry,
And even the ranks of Tuscany
Could scarce forbear to cheer.
8. The story is much too sad to repeat, or even to hear.
9. He believed his circle to be equal in area to our square
10. I have sat and eyed
The thunder breaking from his cloud, and smiled
To see him shake his lightnings o'er my head.
11. I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.
12. The walls must be crumbled, the stones decayed,
To pleasure his dauntly whim

13. She, with her bright eyes, seemed to be
The star of the goodly company.

14. A sunbeam would not have deigned to enter through a window so dirty.

15. Such arguments will not serve to convince him of his error.

16. To speak harshly to a child generally does harm not to be easily remedied.

17. Sarcasm is a sharp-edged weapon for any one to use.

18. To steal a pin is a sin; to steal a dirty is a pity.

19. Tell my sister not to weep for me and sob with drooping head.

20. I would not have a slave to till my ground,
To carry me, to fan me while I sleep,
And tremble when I wake, for all the wealth
That sinews bought and sold have ever earned.

24. Verbals.—There are two other kinds of words derived from verbs. Like verbs they express action or state, and at the same time they have the function of *adjectives* or of *nouns*. Such action or state as they express is *assumed*, not *predicated*. Sometimes their verbal character is the more prominent feature; in other cases their noun or their adjective nature is the stronger. Since they are forms of the verb, they are known by the general name of **verbals**. They are:

1. *The Gerund or Verbal Noun.*—This verbal may be *simple* or *compound*.

Simple.—*Seeing is believing.* He was accused of *cheating*. We admired his *skating*.

Compound.—*Being loved* is more satisfactory than *being hated*. He prided himself upon *having been rewarded*.

The *verbal noun* may be used in the same relations as an *ordinary noun*. It may be:

(a) *The Subject of a Verb.*—*Living* is expensive. *Having been indulged* was the boy's ruin.

(b) *The Object of a Verb or of a Preposition.*—We *practiced riding* a bicycle. We may thank him *for having assisted* us.

(c) *The Predicate Noun.*—*Seeing is believing.*

(d) *In Any of the Independent Relations; as, apposition, exclamation, phonasm, etc.*

In its verbal character, it may take an *adverbial modifier*, and when derived from a transitive verb it may have an object.

Living *economically* is the usual method of **saving** money. **Speaking** *only when we were addressed*, was required of all of us.

Definition.—*A gerund or verbal noun is a verbal having the functions of a noun.*

2. *The Participle or Verbal Adjective.*—The word *participle* is derived from a Latin verb meaning "to share" or "partake of." It is so called because it partakes of the nature and function of both the *noun* and the *adjective*. The most common form of the verbal adjective ends in *ing*, but there is no difficulty in distinguishing it from the gerund having the same ending. For if, like an adjective, a verbal modifies the meaning of a noun or a pronoun, it is a *participle*; if it merely names an action or a state, it is a *gerund*. The participle is either *simple* or *compound*.

Simple.—We saw *him skating*. Columbus, **seeing** a light, knew that land was near. The *merchant*, **trusted** and **helped** by his creditors, regained his prosperity. The **wounded** *soldier* was **carried** to the rear.

Compound.—The *boy*, **having recovered**, returned to his play. **Having been suspected**, *he* proved his innocence.

Definition.—*A participle or verbal adjective is a verbal having the functions of an adjective.*

The verbal character of the participle is sometimes very slightly marked. In such cases the verbal adjective may be regarded as an ordinary adjective. The following are illustrations:

Running water. *A dining* room. *A writing* teacher.

The same loss of verbal value takes place with the *gerund*. It becomes a mere noun when the article precedes it; as,

The *ticking* of the old clock was heard above the *raging* of the tempest.

25. EXERCISE.—Study the model's review and analyze the sentences that follow.

1. A (bird) was seen in a very pleasant sight.

2. Being tired (I) was thrown in the rolling wagon

and fell into a sleep disturbed by strange dreams.

3. (He) was struggling with weakness,

and bowed his head into the sprinkled ashes.

4. We caught sight of a donkey trying in vain to pull a loaded cart up the bank of a roaring mountain stream.

5. Having prepared a hasty lunch to appease their coming hunger, the boys started before sunrise.

6. He thinks, my dear little brother, so knowing,
That feather-bed fairies do all the snowing.

7. The evening mist, rising and floating far and wide, prevented us from seeing the mountains.

8. But a bold peasantry, their country's pride,
When once destroyed, can never be supplied.

9. There, where a few torn shrubs the place disclose,
The village preacher's modest mansion rose.

10. * * * * * and with him, directing his household,
Gentle Evangeline lived, his child, the pride of the village.

11. And mine has been the fate of those
To whom the goodly earth and air
Are banned and barred—forbidden fare.

12. I sometimes deemed that it might be
My brother's soul come down to me.

13. Having taken refuge in the swaying tops of the coconut trees, the monkeys threw the fruit at the sailors wandering about the grove.

14. This fading sunshine being gathered up and poured abundantly upon the roofs and walls, imbued them with a kind of subdued cheerfulness.

15. To spend too much time in studies, is sloth; to use them too much for ornament, is affectation; to make judgment wholly by their rules, is the humor of a scholar.

16. His face was covered with those wrinkles that, rightly looked at, are no more than a sort of permanent sunburning

17. Then, upon the velvet sinking, I betook myself to linking
Fancy unto fancy, thinking what this ominous bird of yore
Meant in croaking "Never more."

TENSE.

26. Function of Tense.—We have seen that, either by its *form* or by its *use*, or by both, the action or state expressed by a verb may be presented to the mind as being in a certain *attitude* or *mode*. But this is not all that the verb is capable of showing. By its form sometimes, but very often by the way in which it is used, a verb may reveal the **time** of an action or a state. Thus, in *I am*, *I see*, *I run*, the verbs show by their forms that the action expressed is to be understood as taking place in the *present*; but if the forms be changed into *I was*, *I saw*, *I ran*, the time of the action belongs to the *past*.

This peculiarity of the verb, by which it reveals the time of an action or a state, is called **tense**, a word meaning *time*.

A distinction similar to that between *gender* and *sex* must be made between *tense* and *time*. We may speak of the *tense* of a *verb* and of the *time* of an *action*, but the words cannot be interchanged.

Definition.—Tense is the form or use of a verb by which it indicates the time and the degree of completeness of the expressed action or state.

27. Divisions of Time.—There are three principal divisions of time—the **present**, the **past**, and the **future**. There are, therefore, three principal tenses: the **present tense**, the **past tense**, and the **future tense**. These are

called **primary tenses**, because they correspond to these *primary* divisions of time. The following are illustrations:

Primary Tenses	{	<i>Present Tense:</i> I love. I am loving. I am loved. I do love.
		<i>Past Tense:</i> I loved. I was loving. I was loved. I did love.
		<i>Future Tense:</i> I shall love. I shall be loving. I shall be loved.

28. Verb Phrases.—It will be noticed that in the foregoing illustrations only two tense forms appear in which the verb *love*, and no other, is used. These are *I love* and *I loved*. In all the others, time is shown by means of **verb phrases**. These phrases contain some form of the **principal** verb associated with forms of certain other helping or **auxiliary** verbs. In the examples given, the only auxiliary verbs used are forms of the verbs **be**, **do**, and **shall**. But it will be shown later that the primary tenses are subdivided, and that from this subdivision many other verb phrases result, in which other auxiliary verbs must be employed. A complete list of these helping verbs in their present and past forms is as follows:

Present. —do, am, have, shall, will, may, can, must.

Past. — did, was, had, should, would, might, could, —.

Of these auxiliaries, *do*, *am*, *have*, and *will* are used also as principal verbs, and their own verb phrases are formed by the help of auxiliaries, in the same manner as is done with other principal verbs. The following examples will illustrate:

Do.	I	{ am doing was doing have done have been doing should be doing }	work.
Be.	He	{ must have been should be might have been will have been may have been }	asleep.

29. Action as Denoted by Verb Phrases.—In the three principal tenses, action in several conditions may be denoted:

1. *As Indefinite with Respect to Time.*—Thus, action may be expressed as performed *at some time* in the present, the past, or the future, but at no *particular time*.

Present indefinite: He works. He does work.

Past indefinite: He worked. He did work.

Future indefinite: He will work. He shall work.

2. *As Progressive.*—By verb phrases, action or state may be represented as *going on*, and, therefore, as *incomplete*, or *unfinished* at some other time either expressed or implied.

Present progressive: He is working. (Now—while we speak.)

Past progressive: He was working. (When I saw him.)

Future progressive: He will be working. (Tomorrow—at the time I expect to see him.)

3. *As Complete or Perfect.*—Again, verb phrases may represent action or state as *completed* or *finished* at some definite time. This definite time is, for the *present* tense, the time of *speaking*, and for the *past* and *future* tenses, it is a time at or before the time of some other act to which reference is made.

Present perfect: He has worked. He has been working.
(At some time during the period ending with the time of speaking.)

Past perfect: He had worked. He had been working.
(During a period ending at some past time.)

Future perfect: He will have worked. He will have been working.

The second example for each perfect tense represents the action before completion as *continuous*, in *progress*. These forms are called *perfect progressive*—they express *continuous* action completed in the *present*, the *past*, or the *future*.

30. Number and Names of the Tenses.—There are, therefore, *six* tenses; they are named as follows: *present*, *present perfect*; *past*, *past perfect*; *future*, *future*

perfect. When these terms express action as *going on*, or *continuing*, the word *progressive* is added to indicate the fact.

In addition to these, there are two forms called **emphatic**—one for the *present*, the other for the *past*. They are formed by using *do* as an auxiliary verb. Thus, *I do study*. *I did study*.

The forms just mentioned are all *active*; in the passive also there are verb phrases for the same six tenses. The student may see all of these in the following table:

Form.	Tense.	Completeness.	Common.	Progressive.	Emphatic.
ACTIVE	Present	Indefinite	I love	I am loving	I do love
		Perfect	I have loved	I have been loving	Wanting
	Past	Indefinite	I loved	I was loving	I did love
		Perfect	I have loved	I have been loving	Wanting
	Future	Indefinite	I shall love	I shall be loving	Wanting
		Perfect	I shall have loved	I shall have been loving	Wanting
PASSIVE	Present	Indefinite	I am loved	See below	Wanting
		Perfect	I have been loved		
	Past	Indefinite	I was loved	See below	
		Perfect	I had been loved		
	Future	Indefinite	I shall be loved		
		Perfect	I shall have been loved		

31. Progressive Passive.—There has been much discussion among grammarians about whether any verbs may be used in the passive progressive. If the table above

contained such forms, they would be, *I am being loved, I have been being loved, I was being loved, I had been being loved, I shall be being loved, and I shall have been being loved*

Only two of these awkward forms are ever used, the *present* and *past* indefinite, and the authority for them is very questionable. They are shown above in heavy type. We often hear such expressions as, *He is being killed, They were being measured, The house is building, or is being built, etc.* But since the same sense may be more elegantly expressed otherwise, these forms should be avoided. There is perhaps no good authority for a progressive passive.

32. Interrogative Tense Forms.—All tense phrases of the *indicative* mode and of the so called *potential* mode become *interrogative* if the subject is made to follow the auxiliary; as, *Am I loving? Shall I be loved? Had I been loved?* etc.

The *common* forms for the *present* and the *past* indefinite, *I love* and *I loved*, are rarely used interrogatively except in poetry; the emphatic forms, *I do love* and *I did love*, used interrogatively without emphasis, furnish substitutes; as, *Do I love? Did I love?*

33. Potential Verb Phrases.—Many grammarians have what is called the *potential mode*. Its verb phrases are formed by using *must*, with *may* and *can*, and their past forms, *might* and *could*; also, *would* and *should*, the past forms of *will* and *shall*. This so called mode is said to have *four* tenses, as shown in the accompanying table.

All these verb phrases are, however, nothing more than varieties of the *indicative* mode—mere *statements* or *questions*. Thus, *I may love* = *I may (to) love*, in which *may* is used as a principal verb, followed by an infinitive (to) *love*. In all these compound verb phrases, such as *I shall go, I must be loved, I do walk*, the first verb is the real one, and the others, taken together, with *to* understood, make up an infinitive used as a verbal noun in the *objective* case. The principal verb should be regarded as in the *indicative* mode,

FORM.		PRESENT.	
		Indefinite.	Perfect.
ACTIVE	Common	I { <i>may</i> <i>can</i> <i>must</i> } love	I { <i>may</i> <i>can</i> <i>must</i> } have loved
	Progressive	I { <i>may</i> <i>can</i> <i>must</i> } be loving	I { <i>may</i> <i>can</i> <i>must</i> } have been loving
PASSIVE	Common	I { <i>may</i> <i>can</i> <i>must</i> } be loved	I { <i>may</i> <i>can</i> <i>must</i> } have been loved
	Progressive	Wanting	Wanting

FORM.		PAST.	
		Indefinite.	Perfect.
ACTIVE	Common	I { <i>might</i> <i>could</i> <i>would</i> <i>should</i> } love	I { <i>might</i> <i>could</i> <i>would</i> <i>should</i> } have loved
	Progressive	I { <i>might</i> <i>could</i> <i>would</i> <i>should</i> } be loving	I { <i>might</i> <i>could</i> <i>would</i> <i>should</i> } have been loving
PASSIVE	Common	I { <i>might</i> <i>could</i> <i>would</i> <i>should</i> } be loved	I { <i>might</i> <i>could</i> <i>would</i> <i>should</i> } have been loved
	Progressive	Wanting	Wanting

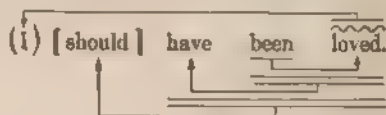
unless it is used in the conditional way that has been described as the *subjunctive* mode.

The potential mode has been abandoned by most grammarians, but the pupil should be able to recognize and explain the verb phrases that have made up this supposed mode. Its

name comes from the Latin word *potentia*, meaning "power." *Can*, and its past form, *could*, are the only potential auxiliaries that have this meaning of *power* or *ability*; of the others, *may* denotes *permission* or *future probability*; *must* means *necessity*; etc. But, as has already been stated (Art. 11), mode is determined more by the attitude of the entire sentence before the mind than by the form of the verb. And the meaning of the verb has nothing whatever to do with the mode.

34. Analysis of Verb Phrases.—Every verb phrase may be taken as a whole in classification, or its elements may be considered separately, and the function of each determined. The former is the easier way, but the latter is a source of valuable mental discipline. Thus, let us consider the expression, *I should have been loved*. We may say that this is a form of the verb *love* in the *indicative mode*, *past tense*, *passive form*. But in considering what function each element of the verb phrase fills, we see that *should* is the principal verb, that it is the past tense of *shall* and in the indicative mode, that it is *transitive*, having for its object (to) *have been loved*. We see also that in (to) *have been loved*, the most important element is *have*, being a *transitive* verb with *been loved* for its object; that *loved* is used like a predicate adjective to modify the meaning of *I*, and that its own meaning is modified by *been* used like an *adverb*.

All this is shown in diagram below:



These analyses are, however, somewhat difficult for a beginner, and are referred to here only for the purpose of showing the real nature of the various mode and tense forms. The subject will be resumed later and fully explained for the benefit of the student in his later grammatical study.

35. Relation of the Tenses With Respect to Time.

The following diagram will show the relations of the *six* tenses of the indicative mode:



The shaded part of the diagram is intended to show that the word *present* in ordinary speech does not mean *now—this instant*. Strictly, *now—the present*—is the point where the past and future meet; it has no extent, and is always moving. But, in ordinary speech, the *present* is a variable portion of time extending into both the *past* and the *future*. So that we use the word *present* somewhat vaguely. It is relative to human action and experience. When we say *He is walking*, the real meaning is that the performance of the act consumes time on both sides of the point called *now*. *I work* does not mean that action of the kind called *work* is done just at the passing instant; but the notion conveyed is, that as time passes, from day to day and from year to year, my *habitual* activity is denoted by the verb *work*. This verb so used is, however, in the *present* tense. This extension of the present into the past and future finds its extreme in what is called the *universal present*. This variety of the present tense is found in those activities or states that are always going on—always true.

Six added to three *makes* nine. Bread *is* the staff of life. The sun *shines*. We learned that the earth *revolves*.

The diagram is intended to show the following facts:

1. The time denoted by the **present tense** covers a period of variable extent, and lies partly in the past and partly in the future

The earth *revolves*. The bird *is singing*.

2. The time included by the **past tense** covers all past time and reaches to the moving point called *now*.

The river *flowed*. The ocean *was roaring*.

3. The time denoted by the **future tense** begins at the point *now* and includes all future time.

The sun *will grow* cold. The day *will come*.

4. The **present perfect tense** denotes action or state as *complete* at some point in the *present*.

He *has worked*. We *have been writing*. I *have been advised*.

Observe that the action expressed by this tense must not be thought of as *ending*, or *being finished*, just at the *present moment*. This may or may not be the case. We may say of a man that for many years has been engaged in the kind of action described by the verb *work*, "He *has worked*," as if the action were ended; but it may be continued indefinitely after the time of speaking.

5. The **past perfect tense** denotes action or state as complete *at or before* some specified *past* time.

He *had been writing* (before I called). When I arrived, he *had gone*. He *had been hiding* for a week (before he was found).

6. The **future perfect tense** denotes action or state as complete *at or before* some specified *future* time.

The vessel will have sailed (by the time you reach the dock). If snow *shall have fallen*, we shall not start in the morning.

36. EXERCISE —Tell the tense of each verb in the following:

1. I may go. He might come. Gold is heavy. The boys have been studying.

2. Shall I answer? Did he come? Have they gone? If he is he *can*, invite him to come into the office. Will not the sun be eclipsed? Did you expect me to go?

3. He was thought to have escaped. If I were he, I should undertake the work. Shall you have gone by sunrise? Who had been suspected before they found the person that was really guilty?

4. Why should I any one be so proud? Have you done all that you should have done? Did you do the work that you promised to do? I should be glad to oblige you if I were able. Can you tell me what he does for a living?

5. Would you let me visit the city? Ought he not to pay me? Have you had your dinner? Can you tell me where he has gone? Nobody can tell what will have happened by that time.

6. What has been done about the matter? No one has been informed. How red the sky is. There had been rain and the roads were muddy, but we set out notwithstanding. Did you see him before he had been arrested?

7. Let there be light. Be good, my child, and let who will be clever.

The verb *let* is in the *imperative* mode and *be* is in the *infinitive*. Written in full, the sentence would be, (You) let there (to) be light.

Come one, come all, this rock shall fly
From its firm base as soon as I.

8. Men, my brothers, men the workers, ever reaping something new:

That which they have done but earnest of the things that they shall do.



GRAMMAR.

(PART 6.)

1. The Different Modes With Regard to Time.—The meaning of the six tenses just explained applies strictly only to the ordinary tense forms of the *indicative* mode. In the other modes, the notion of time is often unimportant, or it is obscured by some other consideration. In a *statement* or a *question*, time is generally a matter of importance; in other words, the tenses of the indicative carefully distinguish differences of time. Thus, in the following sentences, the time of the action or state is denoted very plainly and exactly—as much so as the action itself.

He *sees* the deer. We *saw* a fox. They *will come*. They *have been paid*. The road *had been made*. They *will have gone*.

In these examples, the time of the action is revealed by the *tense form*, but in the other modes the tense form generally misleads in regard to time. Thus, in the sentence,

— If he *were* sick, I *should go* to him,

were and *should go* are past tenses in form, and should, therefore, denote past time; but *were* may denote future time, and *should go* indicates a time depending on the time of the action expressed by *were*. Here it is the *condition*—the *supposition*—that is prominent, and the tense form shows nothing of the time, which is really not important.

Again, in the **imperative** and the **infinitive** tense forms, the real time of the expressed action must be gathered from

the entire sentence. This may be seen from the following examples:

Be good, my child, and let who will be clever. (In the future—habitually.)

To die for one's country is glorious. (A general truth—always true.)

<i>To have conquered every enemy</i>	{	<i>was not a sufficient triumph for Alexander,</i> <i>is our proud boast as a nation,</i> <i>will be the achievement of the Anglo-Saxon.</i>
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In the case of the **verbals**, the element of time is almost always obscure and overshadowed. The time of the denoted action may, however, nearly always be gathered from the context.

A boy,	{	<i>having finished his lesson, went skating one day, etc.</i> <i>looking for a situation, asks to see you, sir.</i> <i>having been educated, will find life easier, etc.</i>
--------	---	--

But, whatever time a tense form may *really* denote, the grammatical tense is named from that form. Thus, the verb is *present* in *If I come*; *past* in *If I came*; and *present perfect* in *If I have come* and in *To have come*.

2. Effect of Certain Elements in Tense Phrases.—In tense phrases, every element has a special influence in determining the effect of the whole phrase.

Some of the most important of these are as follows:

Have in its various forms, either alone or followed by *been*, gives the notion of *completed action*

Have been killed. Having come. Had gone.

The **participle** in *ing* denotes *unfinished* or *progressive* action.

I am walking. I have been walking.

The **passive participle** in the verb phrases of transitive verbs denotes *passive* action.

I have been hurt. The deer had been pursued.

The passive participles *hurt* and *pursued* denote action that affects, or is received by, that which is represented by the subjects *I* and *deer*.

Do gives emphasis to declarative verb phrases.

He does work. They did call. We do repent.

3. Person and Number of Verbs.—Some verbs have in the present and past tenses certain inflections or changes of form in consequence of changes in the person and number of the subject. This is shown in the examples that follow:

	<i>Present Tense.</i>			<i>Past Tense.</i>		
<i>Singular</i>	1st Per. I	<i>see,</i>	am	I	<i>saw,</i>	<i>was</i>
	2d Per. Thou	<i>seest,</i>	art	Thou	<i>sawest,</i>	<i>wast</i>
	3d Per. He	<i>sees,</i>	is	He	<i>saw,</i>	<i>was</i>
<i>Plural</i>	1st Per. We	<i>see,</i>	are	We	<i>saw,</i>	were
	2d Per. You	<i>see,</i>	<i>are</i>	You	<i>saw,</i>	<i>were</i>
	3d Per. They	<i>see,</i>	<i>are</i>	They	<i>saw,</i>	<i>were</i>

These inflections for person and number are very few and unimportant for English verbs, yet they have led grammarians to say that *a finite verb must agree with its subject in number and person*. By this they mean that such changes must be made in the form of verbs as are required by changes in the person and number of the subject.

VERBS REGULAR AND IRREGULAR.

4. The Inflectional Base.—The simple *inflectional base* of the verb is the form it has in the *first person singular* of the *present indicative* or in the *present infinitive*. These, for a few verbs, are as follows:

Inflectional Base.	{	<i>Ind. Pres. 1st Pers. Sing.</i> —I go, come,
		am, report, write, rule
		<i>Present Infinitive.</i> —To go, come, be,
		report, write, rule

From these inflectional bases or root forms the various modes and tenses are derived. Now, the most important of all the derived forms are the *past indicative* and the *perfect participle*. For the verbs given above, these two forms are as follows:

Past Indicative.—Went, came, was, *reported, wrote, ruled*

Perfect Participle.—Gone, come, been, *reported, written, ruled*

It will be noticed that the inflectional base is retained in the past tense and perfect participle of only two of the foregoing verbs. These two are *report* and *rule*, and their derived forms are made by adding *ed* to the former and *d* alone to the latter. All the remaining verbs form their past tense and perfect participle in some other way. Now, verbs are divided into two classes, according as they do or do not make these two forms, the past tense and the perfect participle, by adding *d* or *ed* to the inflectional base. These two classes into which verbs are divided are **regular verbs** and **irregular verbs**.

Definition.—*A regular verb is a verb that forms its past tense and perfect participle by adding d or ed to its root or inflectional base*

Some examples of regular verbs follow:

Inflectional Base.	{ ^I _{To} }	recte, return, provide, conceal, act
Past Indicative.	{	Receited, returned, provided, concealed, acted
Perfect Participle.		

Definition.—*An Irregular verb is a verb that does not form its past tense and perfect participle by adding d or ed to its root or inflectional base.*

The following are some examples of verbs that form the past tense and perfect participle irregularly:

Root Form.	{ ^I _{To} }	see, drink, feel, hit, keep, find, ride
Past Ind.—		saw, drank, felt, hit, kept, found, rode
Perf. Part.—		seen, drunk, felt, hit, kept, found, ridden

5. Principal Parts of a Verb.—The three forms given above, together with the *present participle*, are called the **principal parts**. They are so called because of their importance in forming verb phrases. They are used in accordance with the following rules:

1. The **root infinitive** preceded by the auxiliary **do** forms the **emphatic present** and **past indicative**.

I do work. He does study. We did go.

2. The **root infinitive**, preceded by

(a) **may, can, or must**, forms the **present indicative**;

(b) **might, could, would, or should**, forms the **past indicative**;

(c) **shall or will**, forms the **future indicative**.

It should be remarked that (a) of the foregoing is the former **potential present** and (b) is the **potential past**. But, as has already been explained, these auxiliaries are really not auxiliaries but principal verbs followed by an infinitive object with **to** omitted.

I may go — I may (to) go. I shall come = I shall (to) come.

3. The **present participle** as an element of a verb phrase makes the expressed action **progressive** or **continuous**.

I am working. We have been thinking. They should have been acting.

4. The **perfect participle** of the principal verb, when preceded by **have** in any of its forms, denotes **completed action**.

I have written. He has gone. They had loved. We should have spoken.

5. The **perfect participle** of the principal verb, when preceded by **be** in any of its forms, denotes **passive action**.

He is loved. We were chosen. They should have been arrested.

6. **Redundant Verbs**.—Some verbs form their past tense, or their perfect participle, or both, in two ways. Such verbs are both *regular* and *irregular*; and, since their principal parts consist of *more than the usual number of words*, the verbs are called **redundant**. A few of them are given below:

<i>Root.</i>	<i>Past Indicative.</i>	<i>Perfect Participle.</i>	<i>Pres. Part.</i>
bereave	bereft or bereaved	bereft or bereaved	bereaving
dare	durst or dared	dared	daring
mow	mowed	mowed or mown	mowing
swell	swelled	swelled or swollen	swelling
weave	wove or weaved	weaved or woven	weaving

The most important redundant verbs are usually given in the list of irregular verbs.

7. Defective Verbs.—A few verbs called *defective* are used only as presents and as past indefinites, and they have their formation *irregular*. They are:

<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>		<i>Present.</i>	<i>Past.</i>
can	could		shall	should
may	might		will	would
methinks	methought		quoth	quoth
must	must (?)		wis	wist
ought	ought (?)		wit	wot

Whether *must* and *ought* can properly be used as past indefinites is disputed. *Wis*, *wist*, and *wot* are old forms and are nearly obsolete. *Beware* is defective also—a present only.

8. Old or Strong, and New or Weak, Verbs.—The changes that go on among the people that speak a particular language compel them to be constantly inventing new words to express their thoughts. Most of these new verbs are promptly rejected; but many of them are accepted by good authorities, and come into general use. In conjugating these verbs, they all follow the model of *regular* verbs, so that regular verbs are said to have the *new* conjugation. This is by many called the *weak* conjugation, perhaps because these verbs are not so forcible as the old verbs that we use so much and have used so long—the *irregular* verbs. These have the *old* or *strong* conjugation.

9. List of Irregular Verbs.—In using the English language to express our thought, if we would avoid error, there is perhaps no one thing so important as to be perfectly familiar with the principal parts of the irregular verbs. The following list is given, therefore, and the pupil should not be content until he has mastered it. The present participle is omitted, since it is always formed from the root verb by adding *ing*. Of course the rules of spelling must be observed in forming all the principal parts. Many verbs in the following list are both irregular and redundant. When two or more forms of a principal part are given, the preferable form occurs first.

Root Form.	Past Indicative.	Perfect Participle.
abide	abode	abode
be or am	was	been
bear	bore, bare	borne, born
beat	beat	beaten, beat
begin	began, begun	begun
bend	bent, bended	bent, bended
bereave	bereaved, bereft	bereaved, bereft
beseech	besought	besought
bid	bade, bad, bid	bidden, bid
bind	bound	bound, bounden
bite	bit	bitten, bit
bleed	bled	bled
blow	blew	blown
break	broke	broken, broke
breed	bred	bred
bring	brought	brought
build	built, builded	built, builded
burn	burned, burnt	burned, burnt
burst	burst	burst
buy	bought	bought
cast	cast	cast
catch	caught	caught
chide	chid, chode	chidden, chid
choose	chose	chosen
cleave	cleft, clove, clave	cleft, cloven, cleaved
cling	clung	clung
clothe	clothed, clad	clothed, clad
come	came	come
cost	cost	cost
creep	crept	crept
crow	crowed, crew	crowed
cut	cut	cut
dare	dared, durst	dared
deal	dealt	dealt
dig	dug, digged	dug, digged
do	did	done
draw	drew	drawn
dream	dreamed, dreamt	dreamed, dreamt
drink	drank	drunk
drive	drove	driven
dwell	dwelt, dwelled	dwelt, dwelled
eat	ate, eat (ĕt)	eaten

Root Form.	Past Indicative.	Perfect Participles.
fall	fell	fallen
feed	fed	fed
feel	felt	felt
fight	fought	fought
find	found	found
flee	fled	fled
fling	flung	flung
fly	flew	flown
forsake	forsook	forsaken, forsook
freeze	froze	frozen, froze
get	got	got, gotten
gild	gilded, gilt	gilded, gilt
gird	girded, girt	girded, girt
give	gave	given
go	went	gone
grind	ground	ground
grow	grew	grown
hang	hung, hanged	hung, hanged
have	had	had
hear	heard	heard
heave	heaved, hove	heaved
hide	hid	hidden
hit	hit	hit
hold	held	held, holden
hurt	hurt	hurt
keep	kept	kept
kneel	knelt, kneeled	knelt, kneeled
knit	knit, knitted	knit, knitted
know	knew	known
lead	led	led
lean	leaned, leant	leaned, leant
leap	leaped, leapt	leaped, leapt
learn	learned, learnt	learned, learnt
leave	left	left
lend	lent	lent
let	let	let
lie	lay	lain
light	lighted, lit	lighted, lit
lose	lost	lost
make	made	made
mean	meant	meant
meet	met	met
pen	penned, pent	penned, pent

Root Form.	Past Indicative.	Perfect Participle.
put	put	put
quit	quit, quitted	quit, quitted
read	read	read
reave	reaved, reft	reaved, reft
rend	rent, rended	rent, rended
rid	rid	rid
ride	rode	ridden
ring	rang, rung	rung
rise	rose	risen
run	ran	run
say	said	said
see	saw	seen
seek	sought	sought
sell	sold	sold
send	sent	sent
set	set	set
shake	shook	shaken
shear	sheared, shorn	sheared, shorn
shed	shed	shed
shine	shone	shone
shoe	shod	shod, shodden
shoot	shot	shot
show	showed	shown, showed
shred	shred, shredded	shred, shredded
shrink	shrank, shrunken	shrunken, shrunken
shut	shut	shut
sing	sang, sung	sung
sink	sank, sunk	sunk, sunken
sit	sat, sate	sat
slay	slew	slain
sleep	slept	slept
slide	slid	slid, slidden
sling	slung	slung
slunk	slunk, slank	slunk, slank
slit	slit, slitted	slit, slitted
smell	smelled, smelt	smelled, smelt
smite	smote, smit	smitten, smit
sow	sowed	sown, sowed
speak	spoke, spake	spoken
speed	sped, speeded	sped, speeded
spell	spelled, spelt	spelled, spelt
spend	spent	spent
spill	spilled, spilt	spilled, spilt

Root Form.	Past Indicative.	Perfect Participle.
spin	spun, span	spun
spit	spit, spat	spit, spat
split	split, splitted	split, splitted
spoil	spoiled, spoilt	spoiled, spoilt
spread	spread	spread
spring	sprang, sprung	sprung
stand	stood	stood
stave	staved, stove	staved, stove
steal	stole	stolen
stick	stuck	stuck
sting	stung	stung
stink	stank, stunk	stank, stunk
strew	strewed	strewed, strewn
stride	strode	stridden
strike	struck	struck, stricken
string	strung	strung
strive	strove	striven
strow	strowed	strowed, strown
swear	swore, sware	sworn
sweat	sweat, sweated	sweat, sweated
sweep	swept	swept
swim	swam, swum	swum
swing	swung, swang	swung
take	took	taken
teach	taught	taught
tear	tore	torn
tell	told	told
think	thought	thought
thrive	throve, thrived	thriven, thrived
throw	threw	thrown
thrust	thrust	thrust
tread	trod	trodden
wake	waked, woke	waked
wear	wore	worn
weave	wove, weaved	woven, wove, weaved
weep	wept	wept
wet	wetted, wet	wetted, wet
whet	whetted, whet	whetted, whet
win	won	won
wind	wound, winded	wound, winded
work	worked, wrought	worked, wrought
wring	wrung, wringed, wrang	wrung, wringed, wrang
write	wrote	written

CONJUGATION.

10. "Be" and "Have."—The conjugation of a verb, as has already been explained, is an orderly arrangement of all its forms in the various modes, tenses, numbers, and persons. In order to conjugate a verb correctly, its principal parts must be known. If the student is familiar with these, he may, by applying the rules given in Art. 5, conjugate any verb. For the purpose of guiding any one in the correct use of verb phrases, all that is usually required is a briefer form of conjugation called a *synopsis*, which is a word derived from the Greek, and means a "connected view." A synopsis generally consists of some particular person in each tense of the *indicative* and *subjunctive* modes, and all the forms of the *imperative*, the *infinitive*, and the *verbals*. On account of the very great importance of the auxiliaries *be* and *have* in conjugating other verbs, synopses of them are given below.

Synopsis of "Be."

Prin. } Pres. Inf. (To) **Be** Past Ind.—**Was** Perf. Part.—**Been**
 Parts. } Pres. Part.—**Being**

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present.—**I am**; or *I may, can, or must be*
Past. **I was**; or *I might, could, would, or should be*
Future.—**I shall be**; or *I will be*
Pres Perf.—**I have been**; or *I may, can, or must have been*
Past Perf.—**I had been**; or *I might, could, etc. have been*
Fut. Perf.—**I shall have been**; or *I will have been*

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present.—(If, unless, etc.) **I be**
Past.—(If, unless, etc.) **I were**, or *should be*; or **Were I**, or **Should I be**

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present. { **Be thou, you, or ye, or**
 { **Do thou, you, or ye be**

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present.—**To be**
Pres. Perf.—**To have been**

VERBALS.

Participles. *Verbal Nouns (Gerunds).*
Present.—**Being** *Present* **Being**
Pres Perf.—**Having been** *Pres. Perf.*—**Having been**
Past Perfect.—**Been**

Synopsis of "Have."

Prin. { Pres. Inf.—(To) **Have** Past Ind.—**Had** Perf. Part.—
 Parts. { **Had** Pres. Part.—**Having**

INDICATIVE MODE.

Present.—**I have, I am having, or I do have; or I may, can, or must have, or be having**

Past.—**I had, I was having, or I did have; or I might, could, etc. have, or be having**

Future.—**I shall have, or I will have; or I shall or will be having**

Pres. Perf.—**I have had, or I have been having**

Past. Perf.—**I had had, or I had been having**

Fut. Perf.—**I shall or will have had, or I shall or will have been having**

SUBJUNCTIVE MODE.

Present.—(If, unless, etc.) **I have or be having**

Past.—(If, unless, etc.) { **I had, were having, or should have, or
 be having; or
 Had I, were I having, or should I have
 or be having**

IMPERATIVE MODE.

Present. { **Have thou or ye; or Do thou, you, or ye have**

INFINITIVE MODE.

Present.—**To have**
Pres. Perf. **To have had**

VERBALS.

Participles.

Present.—**Having**

Pres. Perf.—**Having had**

Past. Perf.—**Had**

Verbal Nouns (Gerunds).

Present.—**Having**

Pres. Perf.—**Having had**

11. EXERCISE.—In the manner shown in the foregoing models, write the following:

1. The active verb phrases in all the tenses of *see* in the indicative mode
2. The verbals, active and passive, of *find* (including the infinitive).
3. All persons and numbers of the present and the past indicative of *lie* (to recline).
4. The passive of *love* in the first person plural in the six tenses of the indicative mode.
5. The emphatic forms of *go* in both numbers and all the persons.
6. The progressive forms of *write* in the third person singular of the tenses of the indicative mode.

7. Make a synopsis of the passive forms of *choose*.
8. Give the verb *swim* in the interrogative forms of the first person singular in the tenses of the indicative mode.
9. Write the principal parts of ten of the most frequently used irregular verbs.
10. Use correctly in sentences the present perfect, active, or passive, of the following verbs: *swim, drink, come, go, ring, sing, see, begin, lie (to recline), lay*.

12. Use of "Shall" and "Will."—When *shall* and *will*, with their past forms, *should* and *would*, are used as auxiliaries in **promising** or **foretelling**, they are conjugated as follows:

Sing.	{	I	shall,	should	Plur.	{	We	shall,	should
		Thou	wilt,	wouldst			You	will,	would
		He	will,	would			They	will,	would

I shall come unless *I should be* sick. *I shall try* and my brother *will help* me.

When used interrogatively, they simply ask for **information** or **permission**, or they inquire concerning the **will** or **purpose** of some other person or persons. Their conjugation in this use is given below:

Sing.	{	Shall,	should	I?	Plur.	{	Shall,	should	we?
		Wilt,	wouldst	thou?			Will,	would	you?
		Will,	would	he?			Will,	would	they?

Will it rain? *Shall I call* tomorrow? *Would* the teacher *permit* you to go?

Determination, strong **purpose** of the speaker, and **obligation**, are expressed by the following conjugation:

Sing.	{	I	will,	would	Plur.	{	We	will	would
		Thou	shalt,	shouldst			You	shall,	should
		He	shall,	should			They	shall,	should

I will come and he *shall* not *prevent* my doing so.

The foregoing are the common uses of these auxiliaries, but there are many nice distinctions that must be mastered before the student can entirely avoid error with *shall* and *will*, and their past forms, *should* and *would*.

13. Parsing the Verb.—To parse the verb, the student should give:

1. *Its Classifications.*—This consists in stating whether it is *regular* or *irregular*, and giving its *principal* parts; in stating whether it is *transitive* or *intransitive*; and in giving its *object*, if it is transitive and active.

2. *Its Inflections.*—This involves telling, in order, the *mode*, *tense*, *person*, and *number*, with the reason in each case.

3. *An Analysis of the Verb Phrase.*—In doing this, the origin of each element of the verb phrase should be explained as in Art. 15. When possible, the grammatical function of each phrase element should be given. This requirement will be made only in the case of advanced students.

After some experience in the *minute* parsing indicated in the foregoing, the *brief* method exemplified below should be followed.

To illustrate these two methods, let it be required to parse the verbs in the following sentence:

After the wind had risen, the snow was blown in blinding eddies through the streets.

Had risen is an *irregular* verb, because it does not form its past tense and perfect participle by adding *d* or *ed* to its root form *rise*; *principal parts*: root, *rise*, past tense, *rose*, perfect participle, *risen*; *intransitive*, it has no object; *indicative mode*, it is used in a mere statement; *past perfect* tense, it denotes action completed before a past time specified by *was blown*; *third person, singular*, because its subject *wind* is in that person and number.

The verb phrase *had risen* is composed of the past of *have* and the perfect participle of *rise*. The element *had* makes the verb phrase denote *past time*, and *risen* denotes *completed action*.

Was blown (parsed briefly) is an *irregular* verb, from *blow*, *blew*, *blown*; *transitive, passive, indicative mode, past* tense, *third person, singular*. **Was** is the *past* tense of the neuter verb *be*, and is used as a mere *copula*, or verbal connective, making the phrase denote past time; **blown** is the perfect passive participle of *blow*, and is used like a *predicate*

adjective to modify the subject *snow*, to which it is connected by *was*.

14. EXERCISE.—Parse the verbs in the following sentences:

1. The people told the sexton and the sexton tolled the bell.
2. Saint Nicholas, the patron saint of boys, died at Myra, in Asia Minor, in the year A. D. 826.
3. All that tread the earth are but a handful to the tribes that slumber in its bosom.
4. You should have borne with my faults more patiently.
5. 'Tis true, this god did shake, his coward lips did from their color fly.
6. A friend would not have seen such trifling faults.
7. Honor and shame from no condition rise;
Act well thy part, there all the honor lies.
8. Should the eagle mate with the crow, even then I would not marry the son of the earl.
9. Which of our presidents is believed to have been poisoned?
10. Kings may be blest, but 'Tam was glorious.
11. There is none so blind as the man that will not see.
12. My story being done, she gaye me for my pains a world of sighs.
13. If the "Maine" had not been blown up, the Spaniards might now be in possession of their colonies.
14. We had lain for many days in the quiet bay, when at last we began the long voyage across the Indian Ocean.

15. Analysis of Verb Phrases.—Verb phrases may be placed in diagrams in very much the same manner as sentences are. By this means, the nature and function of each phrase element may be shown. In ordinary analysis the entire verb phrase is usually treated as a unit, although it consists of parts each with a distinct work to do. To take them apart is a valuable exercise, since it requires very close consideration and correct judgment. The following models will indicate what is required in the next exercise:

1. (He) [may] love. (We) [should] be careful. (It) [may] be.

EXPLANATION. In the first sentence, *love* = *to love*, and in the second and third sentences, *be* = *to be* used as a verbal noun.

18. EXERCISE.—As in the model, parse the verbs in the following:

- 1. Good Americans, when they die, go to Paris.
- 2. He that has once done you a kindness will be more ready to do you another than he whom you yourself have obliged.
- 3. Then shall the nature that has lain blanched and broken rise into full stature and native hues in the sunshine.
- 4. I see in thy gentle eyes a tear;
 They turn to me in sorrowful thought;
 Thou thinkest of friends, the good and dear,
 Who were for a time, but now are not.
- 5. To pity distress is but human; to relieve it is godlike.
- 6. Diogenes struck the father when the son swore.
- 7. You hear the boy laughing? You think he's all fun;
 But the angels laugh too at the good he has done.
 'The children laugh loud as they troop to his call,
 And the poor man that knows him laughs loudest of all.
- 8. Boston State-House is the hub of the solar system. You couldn't pry that out of a Boston man if you had the tire of all creation straightened out for a crowbar.

TABLE OF VERBS.

Verbs as to	1. ACTION	<div>Transitive { Active. Passive.</div> <div>Intransitive { Active. Neuter.</div>
	2. FORM	<div>Regular—Love, walk.</div> <div>Irregular—Go, come, drink.</div> <div>Defective—Ought, can, beware.</div> <div>Redundant—Dive, dream.</div>
	3. USE	<div>Principal { Walk, go, walked, went, walked, gone.</div> <div>Auxiliary { Do, be, have, will, shall, may, can, must.</div>

INFLECTIONS OF VERBS.

Mod.	Tense.	Number	Person.
Indicative.	Pres., Pres. Perf.	Singular.	First.
	Past, Past Perf.	Plural.	Second.
	Fut., Fut. Perf.		Third.
Subjunctive	Present.	Singular.	First.
	Past.	Plural.	Second.
			Third.
Imperative.	Present.	Singular.	Second.
		Plural.	
Infinitive.	Present.	Wanting.	Wanting.
	Present Perfect.		
Verbals.	Present.	Seeing.	Have neither person nor number.
Participles.	Past.	Seen.	
	Present Perfect.	Having been seen	

THE ADVERB.

19. The Functions of the Adverb.—The adverb has been defined as a word used to modify the meaning of a *verb*, an *adjective*, or another *adverb*. Now, both the modifier and the element modified may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*. This fact makes it specially important that the student should endeavor to become expert in deciding what each element of a sentence **does**, in order that he may **know** what it is.

Almost any part of speech may be used adverbially:

1. *A Noun*.—He is *six feet* tall (*Six feet tall* = *tall to the extent of*, or *by six feet*.) We waited an *hour*. I care *nothing* for his opinion. (*Nothing* = *by nothing*, or *to the extent of nothing*.) It cost a *dollar*. (*A dollar* = *to the amount of a dollar*.)

This is the use of a noun as an *adverbial adjective*.

Nouns used to denote measure of *time*, *distance*, *value*, *weight*, etc. are the *fragments of adverbial phrases*, and

being used with the functions that the entire phrases would have, they must be regarded as adverbs.

2. *A Pronoun*.—*What* with labor and worry he was completely worn out. (Here *what* = *partly* or some such adverb.)

3. *An Adjective*.—*The* richer he gets *the* stingier he seems. (*The—the* = *by how much—by so much*, or equivalent correlative adverbial elements.) The sentence in full would be nearly, "By how much richer he gets, by so much stingier he seems."

4. *A Verb*.—*Clink, clank*, go the hammers now. *Bang*, went the gun.

5. *A Verbal*.—*We* were *dripping* wet. *Being* good is less easy than *seeming* good. 'Twas *passing* strange.

6. *A Preposition*.—The tide came *in* and went *out* several times during our stay. He walked *before* and his wife *behind*.

7. *A Conjunction*.—Could he *but* understand, he would act differently. *We* are *but* gathering flowers in your meadow. (*But* = *only* or *merely*.)

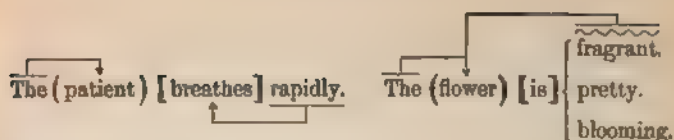
20. Adjectives and Adverbs With Certain Verbs.

It has been explained that all verbs express in varying measure both **action** and the corresponding **state** of the actor. Thus, in the sentence, *The man walks*, the verb *walks* is equivalent to *is walking*, in which *walking* describes the *state* of the acting subject, as if we should say, He is a **walking man**. In such cases the participle is an exact equivalent of a predicate adjective. Hence, *walks* expresses *action* and implies an accompanying *state* or condition of the actor.

Sometimes the action is so prominent that the state is not even noticed. In such a case, if a modifier is associated with the verb, it must be an *adverb* used to modify the action side or function of the verb.

He *walks* **gracefully**. The fish *swims* **rapidly**.

Again, it may be the state that is to be especially noticed, in which case an *adjective* is used with the verb. The following diagrams will make clear the distinction between these two uses of the verb:



Besides these extreme cases, there are verbs that express both action and state so strongly that the modifiers of both kinds are used with them. In such cases, the adverbial modifiers are generally phrases or clauses.



Here, the adjectives *sick*, *safe*, and *sound* denote the condition of the subject, and not the *manner*, *time*, or *place* of the action.

Many verbs in which the action is prominent are followed by adjectives denoting a state of that which the subject represents. Some examples follow:

He *felt bad*. They *looked sick*. She *sat erect, serene, and quiet*.
We *reached home safe*. The milk *turned sour*. Our blood *ran cold*.
Shut the door tight. *Open your eyes wide*. *Lie still and keep quiet*.

21. Adverbs Classified According to Use.—Classified according to use, adverbs are of four kinds: (1) **simple**; (2) **interrogative**; (3) **conjunctive**; (4) **modal**.

Definition.—A **simple adverb** is an adverb that is joined directly to the element modified by it.

Go *quickly*. Come *here*. Gaily to burgeon and broadly to grow.

Definition.—An **interrogative adverb** is an adverb used to inquire concerning the *time*, *place*, *manner*, *cause*, etc. of an action or a state.

When did you come? *How* is your father? *Wherefore* did you return? *Whither* did they go? *Whence* came you?

Definition.—A **conjunctive adverb** is an adverb that has the double function of an adverb and a conjunction

Do *as* you are told. I know a bank *whereon* the wild thyme grows.
Where thou goest, I will go. *When* I die, put near me something
that has loved the light. *Whither* I go ye cannot follow.

The conjunctive adverb modifies the verb in the clause it introduces. The clause itself may have the function of a noun, an adjective, or an adverb.

Thus, *as you are told*, in the sentence above, is an *adverbial* modifier of *do*, and *as* modifies *are told*. In the next sentence, the clause is an *adjective* modifier of *bank*, and *whereon* modifies *grows*. In the sentence, "Tell us *when* you are going," the conjunctive adverb *when* modifies *are going*, and the entire clause is the *object* of *tell*.

Definition.—A modal adverb is an adverb that modifies the meaning of an entire sentence.

Perhaps I shall be in New York tomorrow. He has doubtless repented his action by this time. I shall *certainly* see him.

Here *perhaps* modifies *I shall be in New York tomorrow*. Any word used in this way to *narrow* or *restrict* the meaning of an entire sentence or clause is a modal adverb. The sentence given above may be narrowed or limited in meaning by many expressions similar in function to *perhaps*. They all change the total effect or *mode* of the sentences upon the mind, and are all modal adverbs. This same work may be done by a *phrase* or by a clause. The *modal* character of phrases and clauses is not usually mentioned in grammar. It is regarded as sufficient to say that they are *adverbial*.

22. How to Distinguish the Modal Adverb.—It is not always easy to recognize the modal adverb. In doing this, the student may be aided by knowing that it has some marked peculiarities besides modifying or changing the meaning of the entire clause or sentence in which it is used. These peculiarities are:

1. *The modal adverb may be placed almost anywhere in the clause or sentence it modifies.*

This is not the case with an ordinary adverb, which must be placed as near the modified element as possible. Indeed, one of the most important matters in composition is the placing of modifiers, especially those that are adverbial. In the case of the modal adverb, while it may occupy any one

of several places in a sentence, there is generally one position where its effect is best. The modal adverb *fortunately* may be put in any one of the places indicated by carets in the following sentences:

Fortunately, my employer ^ understands ^ all the facts ^ of the case ^.

Perhaps, a sharp tongue is ^ the only edged tool ^ that grows keener with constant use ^.

2. *The connection between a modal adverb and the sentence in which it occurs is not close.*

In consequence of this fact, the modal adverb should usually be set off by commas. When this punctuation is not required, it is owing to the fact that the adverb is used, not as purely *modal*, but as in some measure *simple*. The following illustrations will make the difference of use clear:

Modal —*Decidedly*, the scientists are wrong in their opinion.

Simple —The scientists are *decidedly* wrong in their opinion.

In the first example, *decidedly* modifies the meaning of the entire sentence—changes its general effect or *mode*. In the next example, it is a mere adverb modifying the meaning of the single word *wrong*—it tells *how* or *in what degree* the scientists are *wrong*.

It should be noted that almost any modal adverb may be used as a simple adverb; and, on the other hand, many adverbs, ordinarily simple, may be used with modal value or effect.

23. Classes of Modal Adverbs.—Modal adverbs may be divided into various classes. Some of these follow:

1. *General Emphasis.*—Manifestly, clearly, decidedly, doubtless, undoubtedly, positively, evidently, plainly, unmistakably, palpably, apparently, obviously, etc.

2. *Affirmation.*—Aye, yea, yes, verily, indeed, certainly, surely, unquestionably, by all means, etc.

3. *Negation.*—No, nay, not, by no means, in no wise, not at all, etc.

4. *Doubt*.—Perhaps, peradventure, probably, possibly, perchance, etc.

5. *Inference*.—Hence, consequently, therefore, whence, then, wherefore, accordingly, etc.

24. Adverbs Classified According to Meaning.—With respect to *meaning*, simple adverbs have been divided into many classes. Some of the most important of these are:

1. *Adverbs of Time*.—Ever, now, never, lately, today, still, instantly, henceforth, already, hereafter, presently, soon, once, yesterday, often, seldom, etc.

2. *Adverbs of Place*.—Here, there, near, yonder, hence, thence, down, off, back, etc.

3. *Adverbs of Manner*.—Gladly, slowly, well, respectfully, truly, etc.

4. *Adverbs of Degree*.—Much, little, very, quite, greatly, more, etc.

5. *Adverbs of Comparison*.—So, as, than, the, too, rather, etc.

I am *so* sick that etc. He is *as* good *as* his accuser. The first *as* modifies *good*; the second is a *conjunctive* adverb; both are *adverbs of comparison*; and taken together, they are *correlative adverbs*.

The more the merrier. This old saying, when in full sentence form, would be somewhat as follows: *The* more they are *the* merrier they are = *By what* they are more *by that* they are merrier. It is clear, therefore, that *the—the* = *by what—by that*; these are adverbial phrases, the first of which modifies *more*, and the second, *merrier*. Hence, *the—the* are *correlative adverbs* used for *comparison*.

25. The Responsives.—The words *yes*, *no*, *aye*, *nay*, *certainly*, and some others, together with certain phrases, such as, *by all means*, *by no means*, *not at all*, *certainly not*, *decidedly not*, are used in answering questions, and are for that reason called *responsives*. They are usually called *adverbs*; but they are really substitutes for entire sentences, and strictly belong to no part of speech. Like interjections,

they have no *grammatical* relation to the sentence to which they reply, but they have a *logical* relation to it; that is, they relate to it *in thought*.

Shall you vote tomorrow? Yes. Certainly. By all means.

The answers to the foregoing question are each equivalent to the sentence, "I shall vote tomorrow." They differ only in the matter of *emphasis*. In parsing such expressions, it is sufficient to call them *responsives*, give, as nearly as possible, the *sentence* for which they are a *substitute*, and say that they are usually classed as adverbs.

Among other expressions used as responsives are, *perhaps*, *probably*, *perchance*, *nearly*, *quite*, *surely*, *possibly*, *exactly*, *precisely*, *verily*, etc. Indeed, almost any of the modal adverbs may be used as responsives, which is another test of modality.

26. Comparison of Adverbs.—Many adverbs derived from adjectives of quality are compared. A few have real inflections, but the comparison is usually made by prefixing *more* and *most*, or *less* and *least*; as,

<i>Positive.</i> -	soon	fast	calmly	earnestly
<i>Comparative.</i> -	sooner	faster	more calmly	less earnestly
<i>Superlative.</i>	soonest	fastest	most calmly	least earnestly

The following adverbs are of *irregular comparison*:

<i>Positive.</i> —	well	ill	much	nigh or near
<i>Comparative.</i> —	better	worse	more	nearer
<i>Superlative.</i> —	best	worst	most	next
<i>Positive.</i> —	forth	far	late	
<i>Comparative.</i> —	further	farther	later	
<i>Superlative.</i> -	furthest	farthest	last or latest	

27. The Adverb "There."—The word *there* is properly an adverb of place, but it is much used with the notion of place nearly or quite gone from the meaning of the word. It is then a kind of *anticipative subject* of such verbs as *be*, *seem*, *appear*, and of many others; as,

There was once a king. *There sat* by the door an old man. *There lived* many years ago a very wise man.

In such sentences, *there* is an *expletive*, that is, a *word redundant or unnecessary*, for, in all such cases, the real subject may be placed first and the adverb omitted.

A very wise man lived, etc. An old man sat, etc.

When the construction is interrogative or relative, the expletive follows the verb; as,

When went *there* by an age since the great flood but it was famed for more than one man? What need was *there* unsatisfied?

From denoting *place*, the word *there* has come to mean mere *existence*, although it usually carries with it some faint notion of *in that place*. In parsing, the student should say only that it is an *adverbial expletive* used as an *anticipative subject*.

This construction is one of the *idioms* of our language; so called, because it is *peculiar to* the English—exactly the same usage not being found in any other language.

28. Phrase and Clause Adverbs.—Several words taken together, forming clauses and prepositional phrases, may be used as adverbs.

1. *Compound Adverbs.*—Now or never, by and by, sooner or later, once upon a time, long ago, forever and ever, etc.

2. *Prepositional Phrases.*—In vain, at length, by degrees, according to agreement, in like manner, by fair or foul means, etc.

Many such phrases are equivalent to simple adverbs. Thus, *in vain* = vainly; *by and by* = soon; *once upon a time* = formerly.

3. *Adverbial Clauses.*—He fell *where he fought*. We shall do better *when the clouds roll away*.

29. EXERCISE. Point out the adverbs in the following sentences, and tell the class to which each belongs and what it modifies

1. He always acted generously and considerately even to his enemies.

2. They laugh best that laugh last.

Turn *to* (the work), my men. Is the doctor *in* (his office), John?
 All went *aboard* (the ship). He is a good man to have *around* ().
 We were led *inside*, shown *around*, and bowed *out* very promptly.

Many words that are usually given in the lists of prepositions are still used as adverbs. Even when the preposition has an object, it often has in itself a strong adverbial value.

We lived **near** the *river* and often rowed **across** *it*.

Near in this sentence does the greater part of the adverbial work of the phrase *near the river*. This is shown to be the case by our readiness to accept *near* or *across* alone as an adverb, without demanding that it shall be followed by a noun or a pronoun specifying in what the relation of nearness ends. Thus, They live *near*. He jumped *across*.

Notwithstanding this strong adverbial function and frequent use as an adverb, these words, to the number of about one hundred, are called prepositions if they have with them an object; in such case they form a prepositional phrase having the value of an adjective or an adverb.

Adjective Phrases.—A letter **from** home, a rose **without** thorns, a house **with** seven gables.

Adverbial Phrases.—Ran **against** the fence, **quit** *during* the service, **floating** *with* the current.

Besides its function as an adverb, which it has not entirely lost, the chief work of the preposition is to bring unrelated words into relation. This has been fully illustrated in another place, and need not be enlarged upon here.

The preposition is said to *govern* the noun or pronoun with the help of which it forms an adjective or adverbial phrase. By this is meant that the preposition has, with respect to case, a kind of *governing* or *compelling* power over its noun or pronoun. This object of the preposition *must* be in the objective case. The pronoun shows this fact by its *form*; but, since the form of a *noun* is the same in both the nominative and the objective case, we must judge of its case from that of the pronoun when used in the same way.

They took the book **from** John and gave it **to** me.

33. List of Prepositions.—The following is a list of the most commonly used prepositions:

aboard	beyond	pending
about	by	regarding
above	concerning	respecting
across	down	round
after	during	save
against	ere	saving
along	except	since
amid	excepting	through
amidst	for	throughout
among	from	till
amongst	in	to
around	into	touching
at	mid	toward
athwart	midst	towards
bating	near	under
before	notwithstanding	underneath
behind	of	until
below	off	unto
beneath	on	up
beside	out	upon
besides	over	with
between	overthwart	within
betwixt	past	without

34. Classes of Prepositions.—With reference to their **adverbial value**, prepositions have been divided into several groups:

1. *Place.*—This class includes: (a) *mere rest* in a place; in, on, at, near, by; (b) *place, with motion and direction*; to, into, towards, from; (c) *place, with direction*; up, down, through, above, below, across, etc.

2. *Time.*—Since, till, until, during, after, pending, past, etc.

3. *Agency or Means.*—With, by, through, by means of, by virtue of, etc.

4. *Cause, End, or Purpose.*—For, from, for the sake of, on account of, etc.

Besides the foregoing, there are many miscellaneous classes, but these have little practical importance. The

matter of chief concern is that the student shall be able to recognize the preposition and determine the work it does in each place where it is used.

35. The Object of a Preposition.—The object of a preposition may be any equivalent of a noun—any expression used with the value of a noun. Hence, the object of a preposition may be a *word*, a *phrase*, or a *clause*.

1. *A Noun or a Pronoun.*—He went *with me to New York*.

2. *A Verbal or an Infinitive.*—Tired *of sowing for others to reap*. We protested *against being* detained.

3. *An Adjective or an Adverb.*—The taste is *between sweet and sour*. His strength comes *from above*. It has lasted *from then until now*.

4. *Phrase.*—The snake crept *from under the house*. The noise comes *from over the way*. They returned *after visiting Rome*. He gloried *in having been President*.

5. *A Noun Clause.*—They inquired *concerning where we had been*. Judging *from what he said*, we are wrong.

36. Parsing the Preposition.—A preposition is parsed by stating:

1. That it is a preposition.
2. That it brings certain elements into relation.
3. That the phrase in which it is the leading word modifies the meaning of a certain other sentential element.
4. Its classification with respect to adverbial value (see Art. 34) may be given when it is plainly marked.

37. Exercises.—Construct sentences containing the following words as prepositions, and afterwards construct other sentences showing how these words occur as adverbs: *near, over, through, between, under, above, below, before, beside, after*.

Write six sentences each containing a prepositional phrase used as an adjective, and five other sentences each having a prepositional phrase used as an adverb.

3. Write two sentences containing a clause object of a preposition.
4. Write two sentences each containing one prepositional phrase the meaning of which is modified by another prepositional phrase.
5. Find suitable objects of the prepositions to confer *upon*, to confer *with*; to die *of*, to die *for*; to share *in*, to share *of*; to strive *for*, to strive *against*, to choose *between*, to choose *among*, to choose *for*; to have confidence *in*, to have confidence *of*, convenient *to*, convenient *for*.

38. EXERCISE. --Parse the prepositions in the following sentences; and, by means of diagrams, analyze the sentences themselves:

1. How dear to my heart are the scenes of my childhood.
2. She sought her lord, and found him where he strode
About the hall, among his dogs.
3. * * * * * the shameless noon
Was clashed and hammered from a hundred towers.
4. Man comes and tills the soil and lies beneath,
And after many summers dies the swan.
5. Through the shadow of the globe we sweep into the younger day.
6. If, through years of folly, you misguide your own life, you must
not expect Providence to bring round everything at last for the best.
7. The sunset glow of the maples met the sunset glow of the sky.
8. Many a summer the grass has grown green,
Blossomed and faded our faces between,
Yet with strong yearning and passionate pain
Long I tonight for your presence again.
9. Among the beautiful pictures that hang on Memory's wall
Is one of a dim old forest that seemeth the best of all.
10. The perfect life develops in a circle and terminates where it
begins.

TABLE OF THE PREPOSITION.

CLASSES	{	<i>Time</i> —At night, by noon, after midnight.
		<i>Place</i> —In the army, into the house, upon the mountain.
		<i>Agency</i> —By force with a gun, by means of persuasion
		<i>Reason</i> —For his health, at my request.
		<i>Possession</i> —The wife of my friend, a ship of France.
		<i>Exclusion</i> —Without mercy, against my wishes
		<i>Material</i> —Of gold

Many other classes of prepositions are given, but no classification includes them all.

THE CONJUNCTION.

39. Functions of the Preposition and the Conjunction Compared.—The preposition is usually defined as a word used to connect *words*, and to show the relation between them. It is, therefore, a *connective*, but its most important function is to denote *relation*, and this it generally does very definitely. The conjunction also is a connective, and it usually indicates more or less distinctly some relation between the elements it unites. Both the conjunction and the preposition have something *adverbial* in the work they do; and, in the case of the *conjunctive adverb*, this function is generally stronger than its connective value.

During the growth and improvement of language, the conjunction was one of the last parts of speech to appear, and its first use was in connecting very simple expressions, such as a *noun* with a *noun*, an *adjective* with an *adjective*, a *verb* with a *verb*, etc.

The most useful of the conjunctions are those that have nearly or quite lost their adverbial value, such as *and*, *or*, *nor*, *if*, *lest*, *than*, *for*, *also*, and a few others. The equivalents of these conjunctions are found in all languages, and, without their aid, *connected* speech would be impossible.

When, later, it became necessary to connect phrases and clauses, and indicate at the same time relation between the connected elements, other conjunctions were made, generally from adverbs, and most of them retained much of their adverbial value.

Be careful *lest you fall*. I shall go, **though** *it rain*.

Look, **before** *you leap*. He is very ill, $\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{still} \\ \text{yet} \\ \text{but} \end{array} \right\}$ *he may recover*.

In all these cases the clause introduced by the conjunction modifies the meaning of the other clause, or of some element in it. *Lest you fall* denotes a reason or a purpose; it is very nearly equivalent to *not to fall*, which is plainly an adverbial modifier of *careful*. In a similar way *though it rain* is

very nearly the equivalent of the adverb *certainly*. I shall *certainly* go.

The differences in function by which a preposition may be distinguished from a conjunction have been fully treated in another place, to which the student is referred (see *Grammar*, Part 2).

CLASSES OF CONJUNCTIONS.

40. Conjunctions are divided into two principal classes, *coordinating* and *subordinating*.

41. Coordinating Conjunctions.—The word *coordinating* means “making of equal rank or importance.” The conjunctions of this class are so called because they *unite* two elements without at the same time reducing one of them to the inferior rank of a mere modifier of the meaning of the other element. Hence, these conjunctions have very little of the *adverbial* quality left in them, and serve mainly to *connect*. This is wholly true of *and* and nearly so of all the other coordinating conjunctions. But conjunctions of this class, by taking on the adverbial function, shade off into subordinating conjunctions so gradually that it is impossible to draw a line with any certainty between the two classes.

Definition.—A *coordinating conjunction* is a conjunction used to connect two sentential elements so as to make them of equal grammatical rank or value.

Bread *and* meat. Wise *or* foolish. To sleep, *likewise* to dream. He was a partner; *besides*, he was fully trusted. You have seriously blundered; *moreover*, you have violated the law.

Coordinating conjunctions are subdivided into several groups:

1. *Copulative*.—The word *copulative* means simply “uniting,” “adding something to something else.” These conjunctions have very much the effect of the sign of addition in arithmetic. With most of them, however, there is some adverbial value besides their copulative or connective effect. Examples are: *and*, *also*, *likewise*, *further*, *besides*, *moreover*, *as well as*, *in addition to*, etc.

2. *Alternative*.—Alternative conjunctions are such as imply a *choice*, either *granted* or *denied*. They are *or*, *nor*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, *whether—or*, and some others.

3. *Adversative*.—These imply something adverse or in opposition. The following are the most common: *but*, *yet*, *still*, *only* (when nearly equivalent to *but*), *nevertheless*, *provided*, *although*, *however*, *for all that*, *after all*, *at the same time*.

He is sick, *only* he does not like to admit it.

You have done much damage, *still*, we will overlook that fact.

4. *Illative*.—The conjunctions of this class include such as are used in *reasoning* to denote, *reason*, *inference*, *conclusion*, *result*, and the like.

Therefore, *hence*, *whence*, *so*, *thus*, *consequently*, *accordingly*, *wherefore*, *then*, *so that*, *so then*, etc., are examples.

42. Subordinating Conjunctions. We have seen that *coordinating* conjunctions may connect *words*, *phrases*, or *clauses*. This, however, is not the case with the *subordinating* conjunction, for it is almost invariably used to unite clauses. It does this in such a manner as to make one of the clauses a mere modifier; and in consequence of this inferior or *subordinate* relation of the modifying clause, the conjunction that introduces it is called a *subordinating* conjunction.

You will fall **if** you are not careful. He was dismissed **because** he was incompetent. He will live **though** he is dead.

In all the foregoing sentences, the subordinate clauses have the value of adverbs; and, like *modal adverbs*, they generally modify the meaning of the entire independent or principal clause.

Subordinate clauses are often much abbreviated; and for this reason they may often look like *phrases*. But the omitted elements must always be very plainly implied. "If contradicted, he becomes very angry." "He works steadily, though without valuable result."

Definition. A *subordinating conjunction* is a conjunction used to introduce a clause that modifies an independent clause, or some element of an independent clause.

Subordinating conjunctions, in consequence of differences in adverbial meaning or value, are subdivided into the following classes:

1. *Place*.—*Where* and *whence*, and their compounds with *ever* and *soever*.

2. *Time*.—*When* and its compounds; also, *while*, *as*, *till*, *until*, *ere*, *before*, *after*, *since*.

3. *Cause and Condition*.—*Because*, *whereas*, *inasmuch as*, *since*, *as*, *for*, *if*, *unless*, *except*, *notwithstanding*, *though*, etc.

4. *Purpose*.—*That*, *so that*, *in order that*, etc.

5. *Comparison*.—*Than*, *as—as*, *so—as*.

In analyzing sentences that contain correlative conjunctions, that is, conjunctions that go in pairs, it is necessary to consider separately each word of a pair. For example, in the sentences He is **as** good **as** he is brave, and He is not **so** sorry **as** I am, the first element in each pair is an *adverb* merely, and the second a *subordinating conjunction* or a *conjunctive adverb*. It is more in their *adverbial* functions than in their character as *conjunctions* that they are correlatives.

43. Correlatives.—Many pairs of words are called *correlative conjunctions*, or, more briefly, *correlatives*, because each word points or *relates* to the other in the way that is called *mutual*. The following is nearly a complete list of them: *as—as*, *as—so*, *both—and*, *either—or*, *neither—nor*, *so—that*, *though—yet*, *if—then*, *whether—or*, *so—as*, *such—as*, *such—that*, *not only—but also*.

44. EXERCISE.—1. Write five sentences each consisting of clauses connected by coordinating conjunctions.

2. Write five sentences each containing one or more subordinating conjunctions.

3. Unite the following separate statements by means of (1) coordinating conjunctions; (2) subordinating conjunctions:

(a) The earth is round. Men have sailed around it.

(b) The ship sailed around Cape Horn. It entered the Pacific Ocean.

(c) John went fishing. He had been sent to school. He was punished.

(*d*) A fox saw a crow with a piece of meat. He asked the crow to sing one of his beautiful songs. The fox's object was to get the meat.

(*e*) Jane prepared for school. Mary washed the dishes. Mary swept the floor.

4. Use the following words as subordinating conjunctions: *provided, so, as, than, for, because, except, since, after, while, though*.

5. Write sentences containing the following words as adverbs; then write other sentences containing the same words as conjunctions: *before, since, so, here, only, but, where, whence, hence, then*.

45. EXERCISE.—Mention the conjunctions in the following, and tell what elements they connect:

1. I shall never forget as long as I live the look of despair that came into his face.

2. Since he gives so good an account of the matter, it is perhaps safe to trust him.

3. Let him have the goods if he can give good and satisfactory security that he will pay the bill when it becomes due.

4. He has talent and industry; therefore, he will succeed even where his predecessor failed.

5. Yet Ernest had had no teacher save only that the Great Stone Face became one to him. (*Save* is a preposition having a clause object. This clause has *only* as a modifier.)

6. So the people ceased to honor him while he lived, and quietly consigned him to forgetfulness after he died.

7. Creation was not finished till the poet came to interpret and so finish it.

8. "The tent is mine," said Yussouf, "but no more
Than it is God's; come in and be at rest."

9. For time at last sets all things even—
And if we do but watch the hour
There never yet was human power
Which could evade, if unforgiven,
The patient search and vigil long
Of him who treasures up a wrong.

10. And besides, there were pear trees that flung down bushels upon bushels of heavy pears; and peach trees, which in a good year tormented me with peaches, neither to be eaten nor kept, nor, without labor and perplexity, to be given away.

46. Parsing the Conjunction.—The conjunction is parsed by stating:

1. *That it is a conjunction.* This should be followed by mentioning whether it is coordinating or subordinating.

2. *What it connects.* If it is subordinating, the student should tell which is the modifying, and which the modified, element.

If the connective is a conjunctive adverb, it not only introduces a modifying clause, but modifies the meaning of the verb in this clause. These particulars should all be stated.

47. Complex and Compound Sentences. It is important to distinguish between coordinating and subordinating conjunctions, for it is the connective that determines whether a sentence is complex or compound. Coordinating conjunctions connect elements of equal rank, and when these elements are *clauses*, the resulting sentence is compound. If, however, there is only one leading clause and one or more subordinate clauses, the sentence is complex.

It is important to observe that subordinate clauses may be connected by coordinating conjunctions. This is illustrated in the following sentences:

When the night is dark **and** the air is biting cold, **as well as** when the moon is shining **and** the air pleasant, we must set out upon our regular trip.

If he has the money **and** can spare it, he will certainly pay you

Any connective that has a strong adverbial or pronominal value must, in consequence, be a subordinating connective when used to connect clauses.

TABLE OF THE CONJUNCTION.

CLASSES	1. COORDINATE	<i>Copulative</i> —And, also, likewise. <i>Alternative</i> —Or, nor, either. <i>Adversative</i> —But, yet, still. <i>Illative</i> —Consequently, therefore.
		<i>Place</i> —Where, whence. <i>Time</i> —When, as, until, since. <i>Cause</i> —Why, wherefore, because. <i>Purpose</i> —That, so that, in order that. <i>Comparison</i> —Than, so—as.
	2. SUBORDINATE	

THE INTERJECTION.

48. The Interjection Is Not a Part of Speech.—We have seen that the sentence is the “unit of thought,” and that it is composed of elements each having some part or function to fill in the sentence. Such words are called, for that reason, *parts of speech*. Now, the interjection does not have such a work to do. In general, it does not enter the sentence, but stands *alone*. It is not related to other words—it is *independent*. In a kind of way, it is a substitute for an entire sentence. The interjection is not, therefore, a part of speech, although it is generally so regarded. It has no inflections, and no sentential function; hence, in parsing, it is sufficient to state merely that it is an interjection.

49. The Use of the Interjection.—Savages, uncultured people, and children make much use of the interjection. Strong feeling of every kind—hatred, joy, fear, anger—is characteristic of youth and of others lacking in culture. As people advance in refinement and education, emotional expression diminishes in intensity and frequency, and the expression of thought becomes more formal and exact. The interjection is never found in scientific and other works in which pure thought, exposition, and argument are the chief requisites. We should be much astonished to find it in a legal treatise, or in the charge of a judge, or in the opinion of a physician. Allied to the use of the interjection is the practice of *slang*. Most people of refinement object to *slang*, and for reasons very similar to those that are given above against the use of interjections.

50. The Thought Expressed by Interjections.—The pure interjection is almost entirely empty of meaning in itself, and is dependent for significance upon the tone and the circumstances in which it is uttered. For example, the interjection *oh*, which is found in nearly all languages, may express *joy* or *sorrow*, *surprise* or *fear*, or almost any emotion, pleasurable or painful; but the thought to be inferred must be gathered from the tones, the gestures, and the manner of

the speaker, as well as from the occasion upon which it is used. The same is true of many other interjections.

Many words regularly used in sentences as parts of speech are often employed as interjections. Some examples follow:

Nouns.—*Nonsense! Folly! Glory! Horror! Shame! Heavens!*

Adjectives.—*Good! Too bad! Sad! Absurd! Ridiculous! Excellent!*

Verbs.—*Hist! Hush! Hark! Behold! See! Look! Hail!*

Adverbs.—*Well! Indeed! Why! What! How!*

Many expressions imitative of natural sounds are used as interjections; as,

Baa! Bow-wow! Whippoorwill! Buzz! Bang! Crash! Pop!

These last are entirely empty of meaning, but nearly all interjections made of the regular parts of speech carry with them something of their usual meaning. The interjection is commonly the most significant word that would occur in a sentence when the full meaning is expressed. In the case of those derived from verbs it is often better to regard them as verbs.

51. Exclamatory Phrases.—Interjections often consist of several words in combination, but always without full sentential structure. Such expressions are parsed simply as interjections. Some examples are:

O dear me! Poor fellow! Alas the day! O Rome! O King, live forever! How sad!

In parsing an ordinary interjection, it is enough to state that it is an interjection, and that it is independent in construction. If it is clearly significant of a definite meaning, the student should mention the fact, and give a sentence expressing this meaning.

52. Exclamatory Series.—A gradual increase or diminution of feeling may be indicated by a series of interjections, each successive one having after it one more or one less exclamation mark than the preceding.

Thieves! Police!! Help!!! Murder!!!!

"Oh! Oh!! Oh!!! Ah!! Ah-h-h!"—the tooth was out.

PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION.

PUNCTUATION.

GENERAL CONSIDERATIONS.

1. Punctuation.—Punctuation (Latin, *punctum*, “a point”) is the division of written or printed matter by significant marks or points to indicate the connection and dependence of its parts. The chief purpose of punctuation is to render clearer and more definite the meaning to be conveyed. The system of punctuation in use at the present time was entirely unknown to the ancients. An imperfect scheme devised by Aristophanes, a grammarian of Alexandria, is said to have been introduced among the Greeks a little more than two centuries before Christ. No improvement upon this was made until the year 1500, when Aldus Manutius, a learned printer of Venice, perfected our present system and exemplified it in the celebrated and beautiful “Aldine” edition of the Greek and Latin classics.

DIVISIONS OF THE SUBJECT.

2. Considered with respect to use or purpose, punctuation may be logical, rhetorical, grammatical, etymological, and for emphasis and reference.

3. Logical Punctuation.—In a printed or written document of any kind, those elements that serve to connect its

a quotation, or a mere parenthesis, is also a rhetorical fact, and the punctuation necessary is for that reason rhetorical.

5. Grammatical Punctuation.—The flow of thought in language is not uniform and unbroken; if it were so, punctuation within the body of a sentence would be unnecessary. As explained above, logical and rhetorical elements are constantly introduced into sentences in such manner as to break their continuity, and these stand related to other elements in different degrees of remoteness. Among grammatical elements also, there are interruptions of continuity. Words, phrases, and clauses do not unite their meanings in regular, uniform sequence; but breaks of unequal lengths occur after long and short intervals. Now, the only method of indicating such breaks is to punctuate; and, on account of the great variety of these interruptions, punctuation is a matter requiring the nicest judgment.

6. Etymological Punctuation.—Besides the punctuation of sentences for logical, rhetorical, and grammatical reasons, words and letters, considered as such, often require to be marked or punctuated. Thus, the fact that a word is compound, abbreviated, or contracted; that it is grammatically inflected, is composed of separate syllables, or that certain vowels do not form diphthongs; that certain syllables have a particular pronunciation, accent, or quantity, or a letter has some definite vocal value: these and other facts are shown by marks within or about separate words. Such punctuation is *etymological*, since it aids in fixing more exactly the true or root meaning of words (*ἔτυμολογία*, *etymologia*, "the true sense of a word as determined by its origin"). The *diacritical* marks of the dictionaries are almost all used for etymological punctuation; and, since scientific uniformity and exactness have been nearly or quite attained in the use of these marks, the subject requires very little attention in a work on general punctuation.

7. Punctuation for Emphasis and Reference.—A great variety of marks are used for miscellaneous purposes. These purposes are so numerous and varied as not to

admit of accurate classification; but nearly all of them serve for emphasis, or to refer the reader to something else in the composition. A few of them might be included under *logical* punctuation; as, the *paragraph* (¶) and the *section* (§), when used to mark divisions. Others again are *rhetorical*; as, the *question* mark when placed in marks of parenthesis to express doubt or incredulity, and the *exclamation* mark when employed to denote that something is surprising or absurd. The rules and methods that regulate the use of these marks are so definite and well known that, like those relating to etymological punctuation, they may be omitted from this treatise.

CLASSIFICATION OF THE POINTS.

8. Grammatical punctuation employs the following marks:

- | | |
|-------------------------|----------------------|
| 1. <i>Comma</i> (,) | 3. <i>Colon</i> (:) |
| 2. <i>Semicolon</i> (;) | 4. <i>Period</i> (.) |
| 5. <i>Dash</i> (—) | |

9. Logical and rhetorical punctuation require the five marks given above, besides the following:

- | | |
|-----------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>Interrogation</i> (?) | 3. <i>Marks of Quotation</i>
(“”) or (‘’) |
| 2. <i>Exclamation</i> (!) | 4. <i>Marks of Parenthesis</i> () |
| 5. <i>Brackets</i> [] | |

10. Etymological punctuation is indicated in general by the following marks:

- | | |
|--|-------------------------------------|
| 1. <i>Caret</i> (^) | 3. <i>Apostrophe</i> (’) |
| 2. <i>Hyphen</i> (-) or (—) | 4. <i>Accents</i> (˘), (˙), and (ˆ) |
| 5. <i>Quantity Marks</i> : (a) <i>Macron</i> (¯); (b) <i>Breve</i> (˘) | |
| 6. <i>Dieresis</i> (¨) | |

11. Punctuation for reference employs many marks besides letters and figures. The principal characters that have names are the following:

- | | |
|-----------------------------------|--|
| 1. <i>Asterisk</i> (*) | 5. <i>Parallel</i> () |
| 2. <i>Asterism</i> (*.*) or (*.*) | 6. <i>Index</i> or " <i>Fist</i> " (☞) |
| 3. <i>Paragraph</i> (¶) | 7. <i>Dagger</i> (†) |
| 4. <i>Section</i> (§) | 8. <i>Double Dagger</i> (‡) |

12. Technical Marks.—The marks mentioned above are of general use—they may be employed in written or printed matter relating to any subject whatever. But besides these, each art and science has its system of special marks, generally for the purpose of abbreviation. Thus, astronomy employs a large number; mathematics, chemistry, botany, music, and many other subjects would be almost impossible of satisfactory exposition without the help of arbitrary symbols. These symbols must perhaps be regarded as belonging to the general subject of punctuation, but such as pertain to special arts and sciences should be studied in connection with those subjects. It is only punctuation of general application and utility that will be considered in this treatise.

13. Taste and Judgment in Punctuation.—It must not be assumed that punctuation has been reduced to an exact science. No two writers or printers could be found that would punctuate a long paragraph, much less a magazine article or a book, in exactly the same way.

The varieties possible in sentence structure and in style are practically endless, and each person will interpret expressed thought a little differently from every other person. What to one person seems important or emphatic, will usually strike another person differently. These differences in interpretation inevitably lead to differences in what is conceived to be the appropriate or necessary punctuation. Hence, taste and judgment will determine in large measure the excellence and consistency of each person's practice of this art. It is clear therefore that no system of rules alone, however elaborate and precise, can be applied with uniformity or produce equally good results. Even a taste that has been informed by wide reading, close observation, and much reflection, must be aided by exact grammatical knowledge

and by a quick and accurate sense of logical relation and arrangement. So important in this art are grammatical terms and principles, that a few of them will now be briefly explained and illustrated.

GRAMMAR IN PUNCTUATION.

14. Sentential Elements. Sentences are primarily made up of single words. When, however, these separate elements are carefully considered with respect to the work they do, it is at once seen that they do not always enter the sentence as individual words each representing a separate idea; on the contrary, they often occur in groups of closely related words that must be taken together as signs of compound ideas. Each group has a function—does a work—exactly similar to that done by single words. These group elements are of two kinds; *phrases* and *clauses*.

15. Phrases and Clauses.—A *phrase* is a group of words having a single function, but not expressing a complete thought. The following are some examples:

In the spring, by the river, in fact side by side, seeing the multitude, without hesitation, having been accused.

The use of phrases in sentences is commonly either adjectival or adverbial. Their functions are to modify, narrow, restrict, the meaning of nouns and pronouns and other parts of speech. To show their functional unity and to separate them from neighboring elements the meaning of which they might otherwise improperly modify, it is often necessary to set them off by punctuation.

A *clause* is one of two or more sentential elements, each expressing not a mere *compound idea*, but a *complete thought*; it must therefore contain a finite verb, and when separated from the rest of the sentence in which it is used, it must *say something completely*. A sentence may consist of several such clause elements united by *connectives*.

The sun came out again *when* the rain ceased.

Each man must expect to reap *what* he sows.

16. Three Important Principles.—Whether or not a word, a phrase, or a clause should be separated by punctuation from other elements, depends largely on three circumstances :

1. *Its Length.*—*The longer a sentential element, the more likely is it to require separation by punctuation.*

2. *Its Connection.*—*The need for punctuating an element increases with the remoteness of its connection with other elements.*

3. *Its Position.*—*When a word or a longer expression is removed from the place in which the natural and orderly flow of the thought requires it to be, it should usually be set off by some kind of punctuation.* This transposition is usually for the purpose of emphasis, or it is the result of interruption or afterthought.

Frequently, but not always, are the wicked punished in this life.

This sentence, regularly arranged, would require no punctuation.

The wicked are frequently but not always punished in this life.

17. A General Rule.—The modern tendency is towards the avoidance of unnecessary punctuation. Many persons get into the practice of putting in some kind of mark wherever it appears that a pause would be necessary in reading. This is all wrong. Such punctuation renders grammatical punctuation impossible.

Others, again, always set off their *how*, *when*, and *where* clauses. This is very frequently unnecessary. Even those clauses that begin with such conjunctions as *if*, *unless*, *except*, *although*, *because*, etc. should not be separated by punctuation unless for reasons that are very obvious. The inexperienced writer may safely observe the following :

Punctuate too little rather than too much. When to punctuate does not render the meaning plainer or effect some definite advantage, do not punctuate.

18. Origin of the Marks of Punctuation.—The names of most of the marks used for grammatical punctuation were

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borrowed from the names of the sentential elements set off by them.

1. The **period** (περίοδος, *períodos*, “a way around”) marked a complete circuit of words—an entire sentence. The picture in the word is the circular track of a race course.

2. The **colon** (κῶλον, *kōlon*, “a limb,” “half of a race course”) was one of two main divisions of a long compound sentence. From the part or division the name was transferred to the *mark* used in indicating the divisions.

3. Strictly, the **semicolon** should be used in separating a sentence into *fourths*; but, for obvious reasons, no such limitation is possible. It indicates a degree of separation next less than that made by the colon; but only in name, not in reality, is it a *half-colon*.

4. The **comma** (κόμμα, *komma*, “a segment”; κόπτειν, *koptein*, “to cut”) denotes the shortest separation in ideas or construction between written or printed sentential elements.

5. The **mark of interrogation** is said to have been made from the initial and final letters of the Latin word *Questio*, the *Q* being written above the *o*; thus, *Q*.

6. The **mark of exclamation** is believed to have been formed from the letters of the Latin interjection *io*, expressing *joy*; thus, *!*.

RULES FOR PUNCTUATION.

19. Insufficiency of Rules.—No code of rules for punctuation can be devised that will provide for every possible sentence form, for the number of these is practically infinite. Much must be left to the judgment, taste, and intention of the writer. It may be taken as a general principle that the objects of punctuation are to aid in bringing out the exact meaning of the writer, and to prevent ambiguity. There should not be more punctuation than is required for the first, or less than will accomplish the second.

The following rules will be found to cover all the cases that have been determined by the general practice of the best authorities.

THE COMMA.

20. General Principles.—The comma is used more frequently than any other mark of punctuation; but, almost without exception, these various uses may be included under one of the three following heads :

1. *The Interpolation of Elements.*—The flow of thought in language is not uniform and unbroken like the current of a deep river; it is more like that of a stream filled with obstructions. These obstructions to the flow of the sentence are indicated by punctuation. When an element not really necessary to the thought is introduced in such way as to break the continuity, it is commonly set off by commas.

2. *The Ellipsis of Elements.*—In the expression of thought, elements are often so clearly implied that they need not be repeated. This is particularly the case with the *verb*, though the ellipsis of other parts of speech, as for example the *conjunction*, is very common. These ellipses are usually marked by commas.

3. *The Transposition of Elements.*—Usage has established certain positions for the various sentential elements, which are often put in other places, generally for emphasis or euphony; and since in their unusual positions they obstruct in some measure the flow of thought, the fact must often be marked by punctuation.

 RULE I.

21. Logical Elements.—*Logical connective and transitional elements, if the interruption from their use is very marked, should be set off by commas.*

Besides, he is our father; *therefore*, we should show him respect.
Moreover, the white man was the aggressor.

22. Although these elements, being in the nature of modal adverbs (adverbs that modify entire sentences), may be placed almost anywhere in a sentence or a clause, their usual place when truly parenthetical is at the beginning. If

they occur near an element the meaning of which they may be conceived as modifying, they lose their logical value, take on mere grammatical function, and require no punctuation.

Besides, he is our father; we should *therefore* show him respect.

Finally, he was successful. He was *finally* successful.

However, we are extremely sorry. *However* sorry we may be, is of no avail now.

23. The following are in common use as logical parenthetical elements:

then	besides	secondly	in fact
too	again	wherefore	in fine
also	therefore	consequently	in conclusion
now	moreover	further	after all
hence	finally	accordingly	as stated
whence	first	however	continuing

RULE II.

24. **Rhetorical Elements.** — *Rhetorical elements that are parenthetical should generally be set off by commas.*

Assuredly, Burns was a poet of real genius.

Well, honor is the subject of my story.

Nay, *now*, you do not really believe such nonsense.

These words, *assuredly*, *well*, *nay*, and *now*, are modal adverbs. Each modifies the meaning of the entire sentence in which it is used, and their functions are distinctly rhetorical.

25. When rhetorical elements stand at the beginning of a sentence or a clause, the rule requiring them to be punctuated must generally be observed; in other positions, however, they usually lose in some measure their rhetorical value and become ordinary modifiers requiring no punctuation. This is especially the case when they stand near a verb or other element the meaning of which they are capable of modifying.

Surely, a day of retribution will come. A day of retribution will *surely* come.

In reality, no such creature as a dragon ever existed. No such creature as a dragon ever existed *in reality*.

26. The following are examples of elements that are usually set off by commas when used with rhetorical value:

ay	really	verily	in a manner
yes	clearly	truly	as it were
no	briefly	forsooth	so to speak
may	surely	honestly	so to say
now	indeed	to be sure	no doubt
well	certainly	you see	to be candid
then	assuredly	in a word	in passing
so	obviously	in reply	to resume
pray	manifestly	you know	to be frank

27. When two or more rhetorical elements are used together in close connection they are usually not separated from one another by punctuation.

Really then, I am much disappointed.

When therefore a new edition of my "Lectures" became necessary once more, I insisted on the destruction of the old plates.

The same is true of expressions composed of logical, rhetorical, and grammatical connectives. But when one of the elements is *ay*, *yca*, *yes*, *no*, or *nay*, it is set off by a comma. It should be added, however, that there is no uniformity among our best writers in punctuating such expressions. It is closeness of connection that must determine the punctuation suitable in each case; provided always that *the comma should be omitted when it does not clearly aid in expressing the thought or in preventing ambiguity*.

The following are examples of such combinations:

and then	yes, indeed	surely now	by all means, then
nay, now	but surely	truly then	well, at any rate
well then	briefly then	frankly, indeed	obviously, therefore
why then	now truly	so that now	though certainly
and again	so indeed	to resume, then	but doubtless
but now	then again	surely, however	well truly, then

Almost any of these combinations may sometimes require an intervening comma and sometimes not. They are however most frequently punctuated as indicated above. Of course a comma is almost always placed after the last word of such a group.

28. Parenthetical elements when differently used generally require to be differently punctuated. The following examples will illustrate this principle:

Well then, I'll go. *Well, then* he surrendered. Well, *then*, no more need be said.

Nay, now, don't be cruel. *Nay, now* he sees your meaning.

Though certainly honest, he was unfortunate. *Though, certainly* we must all die. *Though, certainly*, if need should be, he would come.

RULE III.

29. Parenthetical Grammatical Elements.—*Grammatical elements loosely connected are usually set off by commas, especially if they are long modifying phrases or clauses not directly joined to the expression they modify.*

The ancients accounted a man wise, *if he was not too wise*.

This fact, *though embarrassing*, is unavoidable.

Suppose, *for example*, that the earth were flat.

30. Strictly speaking, every term or expression found between the extreme words of a sentence is parenthetical ("placed within" or "between"). But, as here used, the term is intended to include only such elements as the following:

1. *Modifying elements*, although indispensable to the expression of nice distinctions and shades of thought, are not necessary to the sentential structure, and they often break in a marked degree the uniform flow of the thought.

The boy, *when school time came*, was frequently taken suddenly ill.

It is said that, *on a borrowed horse*, a beggar always rides very fast.

If such expressions are placed so as not to interrupt, punctuation is not required.

When school time came the boy was frequently taken suddenly ill.
The boy was frequently taken suddenly ill *when school time came*.

It is said that a beggar *on a borrowed horse* always rides very fast.

2. Elements introduced in the way of explanation or afterthought.

The sweet violet, *hardy here but tender northward*, is a native of Europe.

The moon seems, *to me at least*, more beautiful than the sun.

RULE IV.

31. Transposed Expressions.—*Elements that for emphasis or any other reason are placed out of their natural or usual order are usually set off by commas.*

Respectfully, we insisted upon our rights.

To the man thoroughly honest, stringent conditions are easy.

32. Transposed elements should always be set off by commas under the following circumstances:

1. When the transposition brings together the *same parts of speech*.

In dealing with the *foolish*, *wise* men rarely act with wisdom.

Towards *women*, *men* are generally considerate.

What we did not *have*, *gave* us more trouble than what we had.

When one deals with *you*, *you* are not always just.

2. When the transposition brings together a *noun* and an *adjective*, or an *adverb* and a *verb* or *participle*, or any element and a modifier suited to it; but really relating to some other element.

Where the current was *swift*, *boats* were towed by horses.

On stormy *days*, *cheerful* books entertained us.

When the snow *disappeared*, *soon* came the birds again.

While he *slept*, *there* came an enemy.

They rubbed their stomachs, with howls of agony = With howls of agony they rubbed their stomachs.

We saw some boys, wandering along the street = We, wandering along the street, saw some boys.

In cases like the last two the meaning is better expressed by careful arrangement than by punctuation.

3. When the transposed element is long, or when it contains a restrictive clause element.

That Bacon and not Shakespeare wrote that wonderful tragedy, he firmly believed.

By forgetting injuries that may be inflicted upon us by the malice of others, we declare our own nobility of character.

33. The comma should be omitted in the following cases:

1. When the main part of the sentence begins with a verb,

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or when it contains a verb the object of which is in the transposed part.

On the shore of the loud-sounding sea *stood* the home of the old fisherman.

Many of the *plays* that Shakespeare wrote we *read* during the idle days of vacation.

2. When the transposed portion begins with a preposition dependent on some word in the other part.

In the poetry of Homer he felt no *interest*.

Of the money received for our labor we had no difficulty in *disposing*.

3. When the transposed portion begins with *it is* or with *only*.

It is generally when success is merited that it is achieved.

Only when the birds return from the South is it certain that spring has begun.

4. When no ambiguity would follow the omission of the comma.

In the following sentences the comma must be inserted to express the meaning intended:

In everything, honorable men consider honor.

By all these, different creeds were held.

Every moment, neglected opportunities were recalled.

RULE V.

34. Dependent Clauses. — *Dependent clauses, unless the connection is close, should be set off by commas.*

Although the planet Venus closely resembles the earth, it may be without inhabitants.

If you would succeed in the thing that you undertake, you must give it close attention.

Until the preliminaries have all been settled by the interested parties, nothing can be done.

35. Dependent clauses are, as a rule, punctuated only when they are transposed. The examples just given illustrate this.

Nothing can be done until the preliminaries have all been settled by the interested parties.

36. Clauses denoting *time*, *place*, or *manner*, unless transposed and long, or very loosely connected, need not be set off by commas. Such clauses begin with *when*, *where*, *how*, *until*, *before*, *after*, etc.

37. Clauses introduced by *than*, *as*, and *so that* are not punctuated unless they are out of their natural and usual place.

You should always do *as* you are told = As you are told, you should always do.

He is in reality no wiser or better than he should be = No wiser or better than he should be, is he in reality.

RULE VI.

38. Relative Clauses.—*When not restrictive, relative clauses should be set off by commas.*

This state, which was named after Queen Elizabeth, was settled in 1607.

The members, who were much dissatisfied, left the church.

Homer, who is said to have composed the Iliad, was blind.

The function of a restrictive clause is merely to *modify*; that of a relative clause is to *explain* or to add some *circumstance* or *afterthought*.

39. Restrictive relative clauses are preferably introduced by *that*. When *who* and *which* are used for this purpose, ambiguity is likely to result.

The train that leaves in the morning is very fast = The *outgoing morning* train is very fast (restrictive clause, complex sentence).

The train, which leaves in the morning, is an express = The train is an express *and it* leaves in the morning (coordinate clause, compound sentence).

The soldier that disobeyed orders was arrested = The *disobedient* soldier was arrested (clause an adjective in function, sentence complex).

The soldier, who disobeyed orders, was arrested = The soldier was arrested, *for he* disobeyed orders (the soldier = *some particular soldier* before referred to).

40. A restrictive relative clause that modifies each item in a series should be set off by commas.

Books, papers, and magazines, that had not been read, littered the floor = *Unread* books, papers, and magazines littered the floor.

In the first form of the sentence the comma would often be omitted after *magazines*, but the result is always ambiguity. The meaning then is that only the *magazines* had not been read.

41. When relative clauses, whether restrictive or coordinate, are broken by parenthetical elements, they are punctuated as follows:

Restrictive.—He is the best man *that*, under the circumstances, *could* be found.

Coordinate.—A caller, *who*, I think, *is an old friend of yours*, is in the parlor.

The same distinction should be observed in punctuating clauses introduced by *whose*, by *whom* or *which*, and by *whose* following a preposition.

The President, *to whom I am much indebted*, passed a moment ago.
A man *by whose experience we might profit* cannot be found.

The first clause is *coordinate*, the second is *restrictive*.

RULE VII.

42. Apposition.—*Elements in apposition, unless short and closely connected, are set off by commas.*

Milton, the *Homer* of England, was blind.

John the *evangelist* was the beloved disciple.

John, the beloved *disciple*, wrote the Revelation.

43. When the less specific appositive precedes and is used like an attributive adjective, punctuation is omitted.

The great *orator Cicero* was slain at the instance of Cæsar's *friend Antony*.

If, however, the appositives are separated by intervening elements, punctuation is required.

The great *orator* of Rome, *Cicero*, was less eloquent than *he* of Athens, *Demosthenes*.

44. When the more general element of compound names precedes, punctuation is required, except in the case of scientific names.

Smith, Geo. W. *Lilium auratum.* *Canis familiaris.*

45. A pronoun used in the manner of an adjective before a noun is not separated from it by punctuation; but, when used like a noun in apposition, punctuation is required. The former use is called *adjunctive* or *attributive*, and the latter *appositive*.

You men are more vain than *we women*. *Ye men* of Athens.

We old soldiers are now of but little use to the country. They showed *him, a senator*, the door.

You, boys; I mean you. And thus to *me*, an old *Castilian*, he spoke.

46. The adjunctive use of a noun is distinguished from its appositive use by punctuation.

One *son, John*, went to the Klondike; another *son, William*, was killed in Cuba (appositive).

My *son John* is dead, and my *daughter Mary* is married (adjunctive).

47. Adjectives are distinguished as adjunctive or appositive by means of punctuation.

It was a horrible night, *stormy, tempestuous*, when we set out for home (appositive).

One *dark, stormy, and tempestuous* night we set out for home (adjunctive).

If an adjective used appositively is unemphatic, the punctuation is omitted.

A form more *fair* and a face more *sweet*.

A sound *sweet* and *low* reached our ears from within.

48. Terms of equal generic value, made **appositive** for the sake of explanation or emphasis, should **be set off by commas**.

It is certain that all *energy, power, force*, originate

Send *food, money, clothes*,—anything.

In each of these sentences the italicized **words** **represent**
names for the same thing or intended **for** **se—**
they have equal *class*, or *generic*, value.

RULE VIII.

49. Contrast.—*Contrasted elements are set off by commas.*

Gold, not silver, is what they sought.

Not merely in prosperity, but in adversity also, was he your friend.

RULE IX.

50. Omitted Connectives.—*Similar elements not connected by conjunctions are separated from one another by commas.*

Come, tell me what you wish.

Lend, lend your wings.

Softly, sweetly she crooned, she sang to her darling.

Genius is but patient, persistent, indefatigable industry.

51. When the items of an emphatic series are similarly related to an element that precedes or follows, this element should usually be separated from the series by a comma.

All that was *loved*, all that was *hated*, all that was *feared by man*, he tossed about.

If he could only *see, understand, experience, what I suffer*, he would behave differently.

To blunder stupidly, grossly, rashly, is inexcusable.

To offer no opposition to the orders of his official superiors; to formulate against them neither argument nor objection, even in the secrecy of his own mind; to know, in fine, nothing but blind unreasoning obedience, *seem the chief glory and excellence of a soldier.*

In the last sentence the items of the series are separated by semicolons, yet the common italicized part is preceded by a comma, as in the other sentences.

52. When the last two elements of a series have a connective between them, a comma is required before the connective; but when connectives occur between every two elements, commas should not be used.

Oranges, lemons, limes, and grapefruit belong to the same family.

Day nor night nor sunshine nor storm affected him.

53. Compound series consisting of groups of similar items require a comma between each two groups.

They had picture books about simitars and slippers and turbans, and dwarfs and giants and genii and fairies, and bluebeards and beanstalks and riches and caverns and Valentines and Orsons,—and all new and all true.

RULE X.

54. Disjunctive Connection.—*When two elements are united by conjunctions that are strongly adversative or disjunctive, they should usually be separated by commas.*

Work rapidly, *but* let your work be thorough.

His offense was very serious, *still* he was forgiven.

The case was critical, *yet* we were not without hope.

Shall we come today, *or* can you wait a day or two?

55. Conjunctions with a strongly marked disjunctive value are the following: *or, nor, yet, still, but, best, albeit, though, although, unless, however, whereas, provided, nevertheless, notwithstanding.*

56. The connection between two elements increases in remoteness as they take on adjuncts. It follows, therefore, that a comma may be required for this reason even when the connective is not disjunctive.

A tall handsome boy with black eyes and wavy hair, *and* a very beautiful girl, met us at the gate.

57. Two elements that are disjunctive from the fact that they are equivalent or alternative names, are usually set off by commas. When the conjunction is omitted, such elements are said to be *in apposition*.

A large *opening*, or *inlet*, led to the ample bay within.

Meter, or *measure*, is the number of poetical feet that a verse contains.

RULE XI.

58. Independent Clauses.—*Independent clauses should be separated by a comma if the conjunction between them*

might be understood as connecting, not the clauses, but words or phrases.

Life is very short, but delightful and precious are the sunny days of youth.

Be careful to speak always with moderation, and in honesty deal thou with all men.

RULE XII.

59. Address.—*An element independent by address is set off by commas.*

I rise, *Mr. President*, to a point of order.

Time, you *thief*, who love to get sweets into your list, put that in.

Come, *Antony*, and young *Octavius*, come.

60. A pronoun in the second person used like an attributive adjective or before a relative or an indefinite pronoun, is not set off by commas.

Thou moon that roll'st above.

You blocks, *you* stones, *you* worse than senseless things.

O *thou* whose love can ne'er forget its offspring, man,

RULE XIII.

61. Absolute Constructions.—*An element used absolutely or independently should commonly be set off by commas.*

There are several varieties of this construction:

1. *The Participial.*—In this the characteristic word is a participle.

Honor *being lost*, everything is lost.

Such, *speaking* frankly, is my honest opinion.

2. *The Infinitive.*

To be sure, we might have done worse.

Now, *to make a long story short*, this is what we will do.

3. *The Imperative.*

I say, *believe* me or not, that the story is false.

We shall go, *be sure* of that, at the earliest opportunity.

4. *The Adjectival.*

Good at heart himself, he thought men better than they are.

His one daughter, *beautiful* as ever, was still at home

5. *The Pleonastic*.—This construction commonly consists in the mere *mention* of something *concerning* which a grammatically complete sentence follows. The pleonastic construction is one that is *overfilled*.

Day, it brings him no delight; *night*, he has no rest or peace at night.

RULE XIV.

62. Informal Introduction.—*A short quotation or similar element informally introduced should generally be set off by commas.*

Plato's definition, "Man is a biped without feathers," was ridiculed by Diogenes.

The oracle answered, "No man is sure of happiness before he is dead."

Tennyson's saying, "Death is the end of life," is an unpleasant reminder.

63. When the element introduced is one word or the introduction is very close, the commas should be omitted if no ambiguity results.

The Greek name *Agamemnon* means *great memory*.

Horace's "While we live let us live" has led to much dissipation.

RULE XV.

64. Ellipsis of the Verb.—*In continued sentences where a common verb is expressed in only one of the clauses and understood in the others, the omitted verb is usually indicated by a comma.*

Homer was the greater genius; Virgil, the better artist.

Semiramis built Babylon; Dido, Carthage; and Romulus, Rome.

RULE XVI.

65. Dates.—*Dates and other expressions consisting of a series of related groups require commas between their component groups.*

Washington was born on Friday, February 22, 1732, in Westmoreland Co., Va.

See Green's "History of the English People," vol. i, book iii, chap. ii, pp. 423-425.

Killed in an accident at 1239 Fifth ave., New York, Tuesday, June 7, 1891.

66. Commas should not be placed between B. C., A. D., A. U. C., etc., and the number denoting a year.

Cæsar invaded Britain, B. C. 55 (or, in the year 55 B. C.).

Done at Washington, D. C., July 10, A. D. 1899.

Arabic numbers, except where used to denote dates or street or page numbers, are separated by commas into periods of three figures each, beginning at the right. In the case of mixed decimals the place of beginning is the decimal point.

10,120,475.68; \$36,903.7325+; \$1,049,6851; £12,965.

THE SEMICOLON.

RULE XVII.

67. Added Clauses.—*When a clause complete in itself is followed by one expressing a reason or consequence, an explanation or inference, the clauses should usually be separated by a semicolon.*

We might have guessed our immortality, for Nature, giving instincts, never fails to give the ends to which they point.

The fear of heresy did what the sense of oppression could not do; it changed men into devoted partisans and obstinate rebels.

68. Even when the connective is omitted, the semicolon is used unless the clauses are very long and their connection not close. In this latter case a colon may be required, or the sentence may be broken into two sentences.

The wisest are hable to error, even Jupiter sometimes nods.

History cannot be perfectly true; it may tell the truth, but not the whole truth.

69. When there is doubt as to the degree of separation, preference should be given to a point denoting less separation of parts. When it is not clear which is better, a comma or a semicolon, use a comma.

RULE XVIII.

70. Subdivided Clauses.—*United clauses that contain elements set off by commas should generally be separated by semicolons.*

Arrogance is generally, though not always, born of wealth and the consciousness of power; but true humility, of real wisdom and genius.

RULE XIX.

71. Coordinate Clauses.—*United clauses of equal rank, slightly connected and without intervening connectives, should be separated by semicolons.*

Stones grow; vegetables grow and live; animals grow, live, and feel.

If the clauses are short, unbroken, and closely connected, they should be separated by commas.

Everything grows old, everything passes away, everything disappears.

RULE XX.

72. Dependent Particulars.—*When each of a series of expressions is dependent on the same elements, they should generally be separated by semicolons.*

Macaulay says of Herodotus that he has written an incomparable book; that he has written something better perhaps than the best history; that he has not, however, written a good history; that he is, from the first to the last chapter, an inventor.

If we think of glory in the field; of wisdom in the cabinet; of the purest patriotism; of the highest integrity, public and private; of morals without a stain—the august figure of Washington presents itself as the personification of all these ideas.

RULE XXI.

73. Appositive Particulars.—*A general term should be separated by a semicolon from the particulars under it when they are very short; and the particulars themselves should be separated from one another by commas.*

In solid geometry are considered, among other things, four of the most interesting of solids; the *prism*, the *cylinder*, the *cone*, and the *sphere*.

74. If the appositive items are formally introduced, or if they themselves are long or broken by punctuation, they should be preceded by a colon and separated from one another by semicolons.

Grammar consists of the following parts: first, *orthography*; second, *etymology*; third, *syntax*; and fourth, *prosody*.

RULE XXII.

75. **Introductory Expressions.**—*A semicolon should commonly precede as, viz., namely, to wit, i e., that is, e. g., and like expressions, when used to introduce an example or a list of particulars.*

A pleonastic construction is one that contains words grammatically superfluous; as, The skies *they* were ashen and sober.

Shakespeare has many instances of mixed metaphor; for example, "*to take arms against a sea of troubles*."

There were five persons present; namely, Lincoln, Stanton, Grant, Sherman, and Sheridan.

RULE XXIII.

76. **Compound Series.**—*The groups of a series should be separated from one another by semicolons if the items composing some or all of the groups require commas between them.*

Discriminate the following *refined, polished; urbane, civil, rustic, polite; contemptuous, contemptible.*

The English has many words derived from Oriental languages: Malay, *gong, sago, rattan*; Chinese, *tea, junk*; Polynesian, *tattoo, boomerang*; Hindu, *calico*.

THE COLON.

RULE XXIV.

77. **Subdivided Members.**—*Colons should separate members of a sentence if one or more of those members are themselves subdivided by semicolons.*

As we perceive the shadow to have moved along the dial, but did not see it moving; and it appears that the grass has grown, though nobody ever saw it grow: so the advances we make in knowledge, as they consist of such minute steps, are perceivable only by the distance.

78. If the elements separated by semicolons have no interposed commas, a semicolon should take the place of the colon and commas should be used instead of the semicolons.

A sovereign almost invisible, a crowd of dignitaries minutely distinguished by badges and titles, rhetoricians that said nothing but what had been said ten thousand times, schools in which nothing had been taught but what had been known for ages; such was the machinery provided for the government and instruction of the most enlightened part of the human race.

This sentence exemplifies the rule for appositive particulars (see rule XXI).

RULE XXV.

79. Formal Quotations.—*A direct quotation or any similar matter should be preceded by a colon when formally introduced.*

Horace boasted of his poetical work in the following terms: "I have erected a monument more enduring than bronze."

Do not forget this important fact: if you show the people with whom you have dealings that you do not trust them, they will soon reciprocate your suspicious treatment.

80. This rule applies to a series of particulars formally introduced.

In the prisoner's possession were found the following articles: two watches, six silver spoons, a diamond ring, and two pairs of new kid gloves.

81. When the matter following the introduction consists of several sentences or begins a new paragraph, a dash may follow the colon to indicate the broken connection. This punctuation is preferred by many after the salutation in a letter; others very properly omit the dash on the ground that there is no break in the sense or in the connection;

others again use a comma with or without a dash, but this usage is scarcely defensible.

Dear Sir:	Dear Sir:—	Mr. Wm. Kegan,
Your letter etc.	Your letter etc.	London, England.
		Dear Sir: Your letter etc.

82. If the quotation is a mere short saying or is informally introduced, a comma alone is sufficient.

Some one says, "The good die young"; but, nevertheless, the good are not discriminated against by the insurance companies.

RULE XXVI.

83. "Yes" and "No."—*When the words "yes" and "no," in answer to a question, are followed by a continuation of the answer or by an explanation of it, a colon is required between the answer and its continuation.*

May we trust to the intelligence and patriotism of the President?
Yes: that has been fully demonstrated.

Do you live here, my boy? Yes, sir: I was born here.

A semicolon is often used in place of the colon in such cases as the foregoing.

RULE XXVII.

84. Title Pages.—*If the main title of a book is followed by a second title in apposition, and no connective intervenes, the two should be separated by a colon.*

Mnemonics. The Art and Science of Remembering.

If *or* is used between the two titles, the connective should have a semicolon before it and a comma after it.

Logic; or, The Laws of Reasoning, Including Fallacies.

The colon is used on title pages, and in catalogues of books, between the name of the place of publication and the name of the publisher.

Riverside Press, Cambridge, Mass.: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.

THE PERIOD.

RULE XXVIII.

85. Complete Sentences.—*A complete statement or command, unless very strongly exclamatory, should be followed by a period.*

History is philosophy teaching by means of examples.

Friends, Romans, countrymen, lend me your ears.

I come to bury Cæsar, not to praise him.

86. A sentence beginning with *and*, *or*, *for*, *but*, or a similar connective is in reality a part of the preceding sentence; yet such sentences are often separated by periods from what precedes. In this way, long and complex constructions may be avoided, with a gain in force and in ease of comprehension.

The period is to be preferred to the exclamation point at the end of an exclamatory statement or command, unless the emotion to be expressed is exceptionally strong.

RULE XXIX.

87. Abbreviations.—*A period should be used after every abbreviated word, but not after contracted words when the missing elements are replaced by a dash or an apostrophe.*

MSS., *p.*, *pp.*, *Dr.*, *Ph. D.*, *LL. D.*, and *Co.* are abbreviations.

Rec'd, *can't*, *pay't*, *J—n* *S—th*, and *Rev'd* are contractions.

88. Arabic figures when used to number paragraphs, examples, articles, etc., and letters of the alphabet when used for the same purpose, take a period after them. When, as part of a sentence structure, they become ordinal or are enclosed in marks of parenthesis a period is not required; as, (1), (*a*), 1st, 2d, 4th.

Roman numbers are by most authorities written with a period following; as, IV., XVIII. When used in paging,

Roman and Arabic numbers do not have the period after them. There is good authority for omitting the period in all cases after Roman numerals.

89. The symbols for chemical elements are written without periods; also, the letters used in geometry and other sciences to represent quantity of any kind, and certain other much used mathematical abbreviations.

Water consists of two atoms of *H* combined with one atom of *O*.

If *A* can do a piece of work in *a* days, etc.

$$\text{vers } a = 1 - \cos a = \frac{\sec a - \cos a}{\sec a}, \log x, \tan a + \cot b \approx x, \text{ etc.}$$

Sizes of books are indicated without periods; as, *4to*, *8vo*, *12mo*. These are hybrid contractions of *quarto*, *octavo*, *duodecimo*, etc.

RULE XXX.

90. Side Heads.—*After a title or a side head that forms part of a paragraph, a period, or a period followed by a dash, should be used. The dash alone is preferred by some authorities.*

Capital Letters. Capital letters are used etc.

Capital Letters.—Capital letters are used etc.

Note. The student will observe etc.

N. B. Remark.

Note.—An apparent exception etc.

N. B.—Remark.

RULE XXXI.

91. Tabular Matter.—*In tables and synopses, and in statistical or other matter in tabular form, the period should be used only after abbreviations, or where it will prevent ambiguity. This rule applies also to other marks of punctuation.*

92. In late books printed by the most reputable publishers, punctuation is almost entirely excluded from title pages. The same usage is well established with respect to the headings of chapters, running titles at the tops of pages, and in many similar cases. The theory is that punctuation

should be used only when it accomplishes a useful purpose. The following reduced title page will illustrate:

THE
AMERICAN COMMONWEALTH

BY
JAMES BRYCE
AUTHOR OF "THE HOLY ROMAN EMPIRE"
M. P. FOR ABERDEEN

IN TWO VOLUMES
VOL. I
THE NATIONAL GOVERNMENT—THE STATE
GOVERNMENTS

THIRD EDITION
COMPLETELY REVISED THROUGHOUT
WITH ADDITIONAL CHAPTERS

NEW YORK
THE MACMILLAN COMPANY
LONDON: MACMILLAN & CO., LTD.
1897

All rights reserved

THE INTERROGATION POINT.

RULE XXXII.

93. Direct Questions.—*Every direct question should be followed by a mark of interrogation, but not an indirect question.*

Direct: If a man die, shall he live again?

Indirect: { Tell me whether, if a man die, he will live again.
He inquired when I intended to go to New York.

94. When several questions have a common dependence on a final element, only one mark of interrogation is required, and that should be placed at the end.

Whither now are fled those dreams of greatness; those busy, bustling days; those happy, festive nights; those veering thoughts, lost between good and ill, that charmed thy youth?

When several questions have no common element, each question, even though grammatically incomplete, requires a separate mark.

What is education? Who are its apostles? When did they live? Where?

Shall a man succeed by theft? by dishonesty? by trickery? by bribery?

95. Questions are often put in the declarative form. In such cases they are known to be questions only by their punctuation.

You will come to-morrow? I may depend on that?

Well, sir? Sick? Since when? Yesterday?

Of late years there has come into pretty general use the practice of following the statements of a speaker with an interrogative *yes*. This is in very bad taste.

Speaker.—"We then went aboard the steamer, which immediately left the harbor." *Listener.*—"Yes?" *Speaker.*—"The voyage was at first very rough, and we were all seasick." *Listener.*—"Yes?"

This is a usage similar to the "Do tell!" of the New England States.

RULE XXXIII.

96. Doubt.—*In order to denote doubt or incredulity or to suggest a correction, an interrogation mark may be inserted within the body of a sentence and enclosed by marks of parenthesis.*

Thomas Parr was born in 1483 (?) and died in 1635.

The augers (*augurs?*) were all in the temple of Jupiter.

Hypatia was murdered by the monks, instigated by Saint (?) Cyril of Alexandria.

RULE XXXIV.

97. Quotations Within Questions.—*A quotation within a question must be punctuated so as to retain the individuality of each.*

Have you heard the head waiter say "dinner is served"?

Do you remember Tweed's "what are you going to do about it?"

Did not some one cry "murder! help!"?

Has the question, "whence came we?" ever been answered?

THE EXCLAMATION POINT.

RULE XXXV.

98. Exclamatory Sentences.—*An exclamation point should be placed at the end of a sentence expressing very strong emotion or implying loud outcry.*

What a burning shame! How dare you, sir!

“Come back! come back!” he cried in grief. “Rouse, ye Romans! rouse, ye slaves!”

Even when the feeling is strong, it is better to avoid, whenever possible, the use of the exclamation point. It is a mark found most frequently in weak writing. Mere tricks of punctuation cannot make up for lack of force; a refined and well balanced intellect avoids the show of emotion.

O, sir, forgive me.

O, I am utterly disgusted with him.

RULE XXXVI.

99. Exclamatory Expressions.—*An exclamation point should usually follow interjections and interjectional expressions.*

Alas! alas! what have I spoken? Listen! O listen!

Oh! how it hurts! O what a beauty!

Ha, ha, ha, ho, ho! Fie, fie, fie, good sir!

When an interjection is repeated the punctuation should be as in the last example above.

100. The interjections *O* and *oh* are generally discriminated thus: The former is used where the emotion colors an entire sentence; the latter as a mere ejaculation expressing sudden, strong, and explosive emotion. When *O* is used, the exclamation point should be written, if at all, at the end of the emotive expression; but *oh* should be directly followed by the point.

101. The interjection *O* is sometimes used to express mere earnestness, and in such cases the exclamation point should be displaced by ordinary punctuation.

What did you do then? O, I just walked away without replying.
O, sir, may I not have the place?

Tennyson has the following:

"O sir, oh prince, I have no country: none."

102. The interjection *eh* is usually followed by a question mark.

You are going, eh?

When so used an interjection is really a *modal adverb*, because it modifies the meaning of the entire sentence.

RULE XXXVII.

103. Graduated Emotion.—*Emotion is represented as increasing or decreasing by using more or fewer exclamation points.*

Police! Help!! Murder!!! Murder!!!!
Oh! Oh!! Oh!!! Ah!! Ah-h-h!—the tooth was out.

THE DASH.

RULE XXXVIII.

104. Changes in Sense or Construction.—*A sudden change in sense or in grammatical construction, or an abrupt pause, is indicated by the dash.*

My uncle—he was my best friend—died a week ago.

Honesty, they say,—here's your health, sir,— is the best policy.

That old teacher of yours—by the way, what ever became of him?—
was an odd character.

RULE XXXIX.

105. Rhetorical Pause.—*A dash is used to mark a rhetorical pause, or suspension of the voice for effect, where there is no change in the grammatical construction.*

He is shrewd, polished, unscrupulous, and —religious.

My friend devotes much time to charity and general benevolence—
when there's money in it.

A—"Thou art a villain." B—"You are —a senator."

"You are very kind; I can never repay—" she was unable to pro-
ceed.

RULE XL.

106. Rhetorical Repetition.—*When the construction is broken and resumed for rhetorical effect, a dash should follow between the break and the part repeated.*

O those happy days of childhood!—childhood, the beautiful!—childhood, the innocent!—they are gone forever.

To me—me, his benefactor—me, his lifelong friend—to me he has been false.

Is there—is there balm in Gilead?—tell me,—tell me, I implore!

RULE XLI.

107. Generalization.—*When a series of terms is represented by a following generic expression, a dash should follow the series.*

Write a tale, a history, a poem,—*anything*,—only write.
He was chubby and plump—a right jolly old *elf*.

108. The generic term may precede the series.

Those old Greek *names*,—Demosthenes, Agamemnon, Epaminondas,—they have a suggestion of immortality in their resonance.

RULE XLII.

109. Parenthetical Dash.—*Parenthetical expressions that are too closely connected to be enclosed in marks of parenthesis may be placed between dashes.*

In those beautiful far-off June days,—and no days can be more beautiful,—she and I gathered flowers in the Kentish meadows.

What woman—was it your mother, I wonder?—taught you to reverence woman?

I live by myself, and all the bread and cheese I get,—which is not much,—I put upon a shelf.

110. Various degrees of connection of parenthetical elements are indicated by the manner of their punctuation. The following forms show how such matter is punctuated when introduced within the body of a sentence. The first indicates the least degree of remoteness, and the last, the greatest.

,.....,	—.....—	,—.....,—
;-.....;-	(.....)	[.....]

Examples illustrating these forms of parenthetical elements may be found in many places in this work. (See Arts. 104 to 109, inclusive, and elsewhere.)

Of course, a dash should not displace a period, a question mark, or a mark of exclamation at the end of a sentence.

111. Questions and exclamations, being in their nature rhetorical or logical, have no determinate degrees of closeness in connection. When introduced in intermediate positions in sentences, they are punctuated in the following, among other ways :

,—.....? —.....?— ;—.....?—
(.....:?) [.....?] ,—.....!—

RULE XLIII.

112. Omissions.—*The omission of letters or figures that are plainly implied may be marked by the dash (the em and the en dash respectively).*

D—n and P—s were noted for their great friendship.

The winter of 1837–38 was a very severe one.

Matt. 7:9–14. This means Matthew, 7th chapter, verses 9 to 14, inclusive.

In referring to pages no omissions of figures are allowable.

See letter X in "Standard Dictionary," pp. 2085–2087, inclusive.

RULE XLIV.

113. Titles Run In.—*When a title begins the first line of a paragraph, a dash following a period should separate it from the text of the paragraph (see rule XXX).*

RULE XLV.

114. For Introductory Words.—*The dash may be used as a substitute for certain words of formal introduction, such as viz., namely, e. g., i. e., that is, etc.*

In his library were editions beautifully bound of all the great poets—Homer, Virgil, Dante, Milton, Shakespeare, etc.

RULE XLVI.

115. Authorities.—*When an author's name immediately follows a citation it should be separated from the quoted passage by a dash.*

"Beware when the great God lets loose a thinker on this planet. Then all things are at risk."—*Emerson.*

116. If the author's name is placed on a line by itself no dash is required.

"Nothing is so dangerous as an ignorant friend; a wise enemy is more helpful."

Voltaire.

117. If both the writer's name and the writing in which the quotation is found are given, they should be separated by a dash and be printed in different type.

"Language is only the instrument of science, and words are but the signs of ideas."

JOHNSON—*Preface to "English Dictionary."*

THE MARKS OF PARENTHESIS.

RULE XLVII.

118. *Words inserted in the body of a sentence or paragraph, and nearly or quite independent, so that they may be omitted without changing the sense or construction, should be enclosed in marks of parenthesis.*

Great rifts or spots sometimes appear on the surface of the sun (a picture of solar spots is thrown upon the screen), which are never seen at the poles, but always in a narrow belt along the sun's equator.

Another theory (that of Weissman) is that acquired aptitudes cannot be transmitted from parent to offspring.

This subject will be found more fully treated in another place (see pp. 125–137) and admirably illustrated.

119. A distinction should be observed between *parenthesis* and *marks of parenthesis*. The former should mean the *enclosed matter*; the latter, the *enclosing marks*. The

plural, *parentheses*, should be used to denote the *matter* enclosed within several pairs of marks of parenthesis.

Too many parentheses greatly weaken the force of every form of composition.

Enclose all the adjectives in marks of parenthesis.

A parenthesis should, in general, not begin with a capital, unless the first word is a proper name, but should be treated as a mere inferior part of the sentence within which it occurs, even though it is itself a complete sentence.

120. Such punctuation as a parenthesis requires should be wholly within the enclosing marks. If the parenthesis is a declarative sentence, it usually takes no period at the end; but if it is a question or an exclamatory sentence, the punctuation should denote this fact.

Kit's mother, poor woman, is waiting at the gate below, accompanied by Barbara's mother (she, honest soul! never does anything but cry and hold the baby), and a sad interview ensues.

BRACKETS.

RULE XLVIII.

121. *Brackets should be used to enclose (a) suggested corrections in grammar and spelling; (b) stage directions in plays; (c) derivation of words, plurals, principal parts, etc., in dictionaries.*

He was the subtlest [subtlest (?)] reasoner whom [that] the age produced.

Macbeth. [*Aside.*]

Two truths are told,
As happy prologues to the swelling act
Of the imperial theme.

[*Exeunt.*]

SPEED, spid, ʔ. [SPEED OR SPEED'ED, SPEED'ING.] [A. S. *spedan*, < *sped*; see SPEED, *n.*]

The principle governing the use of the brackets is that the matter enclosed by them shall have no grammatical connection with other words. Their purpose is simply explanatory or to supply an omission.

QUOTATION MARKS.

RULE XLIX.

122. Direct Quotations.—*Expressions that are cited or borrowed should, when written or printed, be enclosed between marks of quotation.*

Seneca makes this remark: "If you wish your secret kept, keep it yourself."

123. When a thought is borrowed, but not the exact language, the fact may be indicated by using single quotation marks to enclose it. This usage, however, is not well established. It is generally better to use the double marks or to omit them altogether.

His life was regulated by the rule of 'doing to others as he wished them to do to him.'

This would be improved by omitting the marks.

When the source from which the substance of a thought comes is distinctly noted, no quotation marks are ever required.

One of the last remarks of Socrates was that the soul is immortal.

Such quotations as this last are called *indirect*.

124. In citing language from another of one's own compositions, it is usual to employ quotation marks.

In my "Lectures on Electricity," written ten years ago, I made the following prediction: "The day will come when electricity will do for the eye what, by means of the telephone, it is now doing for the ear."

125. Foreign words and phrases, scientific names, and single words of our language, when quoted as mere words, are commonly printed in *Italic*. The same is done in a limited measure with titles and names of various kinds, though in the case of these last, quotation marks are to be preferred.

He was deficient in what the French call *savoirfaire*.

We found some fine specimens of trailing arbutus (*Epigæa repens*).

The word *advice* is the noun and *advise* the verb.

Macaulay says that Shakespeare's *Othello* is the greatest work in the world.

It would be better to use quotation marks—"Othello."

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enclosed within several pairs of marks of pa

Too many parentheses greatly weaken the for
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panied by Barbara's mother (she, honest so
cry and hold the baby), and a sad intervieu

BRACKETS.

RULE XLVI

121. *Brackets should be used*
only to enclose a word or words, or
a phrase or a sentence, which

He was the son of a rich man, but he was
poor.

As a general rule, the
words "and" and "or" should
be enclosed in brackets.

He was the son of a rich man, but he was
poor. As a general rule, the
words "and" and "or" should
be enclosed in brackets. They
are not necessary.

The original are omitted at intervals
a fragment that is complete in itself
otation marks.

is with marks of continuation, or if
nted by interruption, the punctuation
l character must be included within
on.

" "I object, your honor," shouted the plain-

the Golden Rule: 'Do unto others?'"

ly in England, and to some extent in this
l commas are placed at the beginning of
oted paragraph and apostrophes at the end
aph. The objections to this are that it is
d that it disfigures the page. This unsightly
likely to become generally current.

THE APOSTROPHE.

RULE LII.

Omission.—*The apostrophe is used as a substitute
ed letters or figures.*

er, e'er, isn't, doesn't, don't, can't, shouldn't, we'll, I'll, you're,
e 25, '99.

apostrophe is used to denote plurals of figures and
as, mind your *p*'s and *q*'s, etc.

RULE LIII.

Possessive Case.—*The apostrophe is used to denote
ssessive case of nouns and of a few pronouns.*

terrors, *John's* hat, *New York's* streets, the city of *Balti-*
omments.

own, *neither's* share, *either's* money, the *other's* house, *others'*
one's hat.

LETTERS AND CHARACTERS.

SYSTEMS OF TYPE.

THE OLD SYSTEM.

132. Until a few years ago there was no general standard for the sizes of type. There were, indeed, certain well known kinds of type, such as long primer, pica, brevier, nonpareil, etc.; but even when their names were alike, they were always slightly different in size if made at different foundries. No founder could be relied upon to keep his names and sizes constant from year to year. The result was that if pica, for example, bought at different foundries, was mixed and set together, neither lines nor columns could be made of exactly the same length. As the printers phrase it, the type would not "justify." To prevent letters, words, and even whole lines from dropping out after a form of type was "locked up" for printing from it, much tedious and troublesome filling in with bits of paper and cardboard was necessary. So serious were the obstacles to taste, expedition, and economy in printing, that the Type-Founders' Association of the United States finally adopted the scale of sizes now known as the "Point" system. The system leaves little to be desired. The old names are no longer used, except in a historical way, or for purposes of comparison with the new names. It makes no difference now where a printer buys his type, for the output of all foundries will "justify" when set together. Then, again, the strips of type metal called "leads," by which the distances between lines may be varied, are regulated in thickness by the system of points. As a consequence, the length of one page may be made exactly equal to that of another, no matter how many sizes of type may compose them. Since many persons do not understand this system thoroughly, although it is of much interest and importance, an explanation in detail is given here.

THE "POINT" SYSTEM.

133. The fundamental unit of measure of this system is the "point." To obtain this, a length of 35 centimeters (almost exactly $1\frac{3}{8}$ inches) is divided into 996 equal parts. A point is, therefore, .03514 centimeter, or .0138+ inch. This is taken among printers as $\frac{1}{72}$ of an inch, but in reality, it is less by about $\frac{1}{1864}$ of an inch. This is used to measure the height or *body* of type. Thus, 3-point type, which is the smallest type made, is very nearly $\frac{3}{72}$, or $\frac{1}{24}$, of an inch high; so that, if 24 lines of such type be set without "leads" between the lines, they will occupy 1 inch, very nearly, in the length of the page. Of 8-point type, the "body" is $\frac{8}{72}$, or $\frac{1}{9}$ of an inch; 9 lines of this, without leads, would make 1 page-inch. Similarly, 6 lines of 12-point, 4 lines of 18-point, 3 lines of 24-point, etc. would each fill a page-inch. Hence, generally, if 72 be divided by the points that measure a given kind of type, the quotient will show the number of unleaded lines to a page-inch. (It must be remembered that an inch is not exactly 72 points, but $72\frac{46}{100}$ points.)

The various kinds of type made under the "point" system correspond more or less nearly to the kinds with old-fashioned names. This correspondence is shown in the table below. Of these, the standard of measurement was *pica*, and this is so very closely represented by 12-point, that the name *pica* is now used among printers to mean 12-point, or type with $\frac{1}{6}$ of an inch body. The thickness of leads and the length of lines are estimated in *pica* size. Thus, leads are spoken of as *4-to-pica*, *6-to-pica*, etc., meaning that 4, 6, etc. leads equal *pica* thickness—12 points, or $\frac{1}{6}$ of an inch. Hence, one 6-to-pica lead is 2 points, or $\frac{1}{36}$ of an inch in thickness. Again, a page 24 picas wide is 24 times $\frac{1}{6}$ of an inch, or 4 inches in width.

Under this system, "justification," even when many different sizes of type are used, is no longer difficult or wasteful of time, as was the case under the old system. If properly set and "locked up," no type will slip from place or fall out.

The point system would be perfect if the thickness of type as well as the height or width of body were in points also. This is not yet the case generally, but doubtless it soon will

be, for at least one foundry is now advertising type made by the "point-set" or "lining" system. This means the establishment of a point ratio between the height and the width of type. The foundry referred to makes its Roman type so as to have a certain point-width for each letter or character as well as a point-height.

Thus, 10-point f, i, j, l, i, etc. are each 3 points wide; s, z, j, etc. are 4 points; a, g, o, v, y, etc. are $4\frac{1}{2}$ points; and so on.

When this is done for type of all sizes, and done in the same way by all type foundries, and when quads and spaces are made from the point as a unit, the point system will be practically perfect.

134. Old Style and Point Sizes.—The following table gives the old names of type, with their approximate value in points:

Old Names.	Points, Nearly	Body or Height, Inch.	Lines to Inch	Roman.
Paragon.....	20	$\frac{5}{16}$	3.6	Paragon
Great Primer.	18	$\frac{1}{4}$	4	Great Primer
English.....	14	$\frac{1}{5}$	5.14	English
Pica.....	12	$\frac{1}{6}$	6	Pica
Small Pica....	11	$\frac{1}{5.5}$	6.55	Small Pica
Long Primer.	10	$\frac{1}{7}$	7.2	Long Primer
Bourgeois....	9	$\frac{1}{8}$	8	Bourgeois
Brevier.....	8	$\frac{1}{9}$	9	Brevier
Mignon.....	7	$\frac{7}{72}$	10.3	Mignon
Emerald.....	6	$\frac{1}{11}$	11.1	Emerald
Nonpareil....	6	$\frac{1}{12}$	12	Nonpareil
Agate or Ruby	$5\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{13}$	13.17	Agate or Ruby
Pearl.....	5	$\frac{1}{14}$	14.4	Pearl
Diamond.	4 to $4\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{18}$ to $\frac{1}{16}$	16 to 18	Diamond
Gem.....	4	$\frac{1}{18}$	18.5	Gem
Brilliant....	$3\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{20}$	20.6	Brilliant
Excelsior....	3	$\frac{1}{21}$	21	Excelsior

MISCELLANEOUS MARKS.

135. Many different marks, named and unnamed, are in use among printers. The most important of these are placed here in alphabetical order for convenience of reference.

136. Accents.—There are three marks of accents; the *acute* (´), the *grave* (`), and the *circumflex* (^, ˘, ˜). The acute is the accent most frequently used. It denotes that the vowel or syllable above or after which it is placed is to be pronounced with a marked stress of the voice; as, *a-cu'-men*. This accent is either primary as shown above or secondary ("). The secondary acute accent is used to denote a less marked stress of the voice than the primary requires; as, *ac-cen"-tu-a'-tion*. The *grave* accent denotes a falling tone; or it may show that a vowel not usually sounded is to be pronounced in a certain word. This frequently happens in poetry; as,

"Cæsar's ambition shall be glancèd at."

The *circumflex* denotes that a vowel is to be sounded with both a rising and a falling inflection, as in sarcasm or irony. It is also used to mark a long vowel, as in *père*.

137. Apostrophe.—The apostrophe (') is used (*a*) to indicate an omission; as, *e'en*, and (*b*) to denote the possessive case; as, *man's duty*, *Moses's sayings*.

138. Brace.—The *brace* { } is used in grouping.

Homes	{	by over under	}	the sea.	{	$[a - (b + c)] - d$	}	Coin	{	gold silver copper	}
-------	---	---------------------	---	----------	---	---------------------	---	------	---	--------------------------	---

139. Brackets.—The *brackets* [] are used for enclosing other characters, indicated pronunciations, matter inserted in sentences but not closely connected, and for many other purposes.

140. Caret.—The *caret* (^) marks the insertion of a word or a letter accidentally omitted; as, *se^aprate*, Honesty is *best* the_^ policy.

141. Cedilla.—The *cedilla* (ç) is a mark placed under the letter *c* when it occurs before *a*, *o*, or *u*, in some Romance languages. It indicates that *c* is to be sounded like *s*; as, *garçon*, *façade*, *François*.

142. Dieresis.—A *dieresis* (¨) placed over the second of two adjacent vowels shows that they belong to separate syllables; as, *zoölogy*, *aërate*. This mark is usually omitted; as, *cooperate*, *zoology*, *reiterate*.

143. Ditto Marks.—These marks (‘‘) are used to denote that something is to be understood as repeated from immediately above. When any word or expression with its accompanying punctuation is to be repeated, the fact is indicated by writing ditto marks instead or by writing *do*. The word *ditto* is the Italian form of the Latin *dictum*, ‘‘a thing that has been said.’’ This abbreviation is much used in book-keeping. Excepting its punctuation, it is usually repeated for each separate part of an expression; or, it may stand for an entire expression. The following will illustrate:

Creditor by investment, February 1, 1893,	\$1,891.25
“ “ ½ net gain, “ “ “	296.88
Jan. 3, To 48 yd. Union gingham, @ .12½,	\$6.00
“ “ 60 “ Amoskeag do. “ .15 ,	9.00

144. Ellipsis.—There are several kinds of marks that denote ellipsis or omissions. The principal of these are the following:

(* * * * *), (.), (—————); as, The P * * * * * s formerly belonged to S n, but they have been ceded to the U - - - - - d S ——— s, owing chiefly to the vigorous action of Admiral U - - - - - y.

$(a + b)^6 = a^6 + 6 a^5 b + \dots + 6 a b^5 + b^6$.

145. Emphasis.—Special attention to a statement is generally denoted by an *index*, or *fist* (~~†~~). The term ‘‘fist’’ is preferred among printers; indeed, they rarely use the old name, *index*.

146. Hyphen.—The *hyphen* (-) has several uses: (1) to connect the elements of compound words, as, for instance,

good-natured; (2) to denote the syllabication of words; as, *re-al-i-ty*; (3) to show that a word is unfinished at the end of a line (see Art. 143 for an example).

147. Paragraph.—The *paragraph* (¶) is used in manuscript to denote that the matter following it should be separated by an interval from what precedes.

148. Marks of Quantity.—These are (1) the *macron* (¯), used to denote the long sound of a vowel; as, *fate*, (2) the *breve* (˘), denoting the short sound of a vowel; as, *atōmic*; the *double* [˘˘], to denote common or doubtful quantity; as, *shōne*, *cat*.

149. Reference Marks.—Letters and numbers are now generally preferred for referring to notes or other matter not strictly belonging in the text. The following were formerly much used for this purpose: (a) the *star*, or *asterisk* (*), (b) the *dagger*, or *obelisk* (†); (c) the *double dagger* (‡); (d) the *section* (§); (e) the *parallel* (||); (f) the *paragraph* (¶). When references are sufficiently numerous on a page to exhaust these marks, they may be doubled; as (††), (§§), etc. The section and paragraph were formerly much employed to indicate subdivisions of subject matter.

150. Tilde.—This mark (˜) is placed above *n* in Spanish words to denote that it is to be sounded like *ny*; as, *señor* [pro. *sé-nyor'*], *mañana* [pro. *man-yah'-nah*], *canon*.

USE OF CAPITALS.

CAPITAL LETTERS.

151. In order to give distinction to certain words, larger letters called *capitals* may be employed as initials. Before the invention of printing, when books were made entirely by writing, the first or *head* (*caput*, "head") letters of principal divisions were generally embellished, and were larger

and more conspicuous than those forms ordinarily used. The matter from one capital to the next was a *chapter* (*capitulum*, from *caput*).

In the German language every *noun* formerly began with a capital letter, but in late German literature this usage is falling into discredit. Indeed, the excessive use of embellishment in printing is offensive to refined taste, just as it is in the matter of dress and many other things. A very good general principle in such matters would be: *Too little decoration is better than too much; the best taste is the simplest.*

RULE LIV.

152. Headings.—*Title pages of books, headings of essays and chapters, and of magazine and newspaper articles, should be wholly in capitals.*

So many varieties of display type have been devised of late years that printers often use them where plain capitals would be in better taste.

RULE LV.

153. First Words.—*Begin with a capital, the first word of a note, letter, legal or other document; of a written or printed essay, preface, tract, lecture, magazine or newspaper article; of a book, chapter, section, or paragraph; of every direct quotation or question, and of every line of poetry.*

154. After the initial capital of the first word in a document of the kinds indicated in the rule, the remainder of the word is usually printed in *small capitals*. If the first word is an article or other short unimportant word, the second also should be in small capitals. The following are intended to represent such first words:

Once upon a time there was a great king etc.

A serious criticism upon the use and abuse of etc.

When King Richard was returning from the Holy Land etc.

Geography is now as well settled as it will probably etc.

155. This same use of capitals and small capitals is now increasingly common in the subdivisions of chapters. The following heading and subdivisions of a chapter are copied from a book lately published by a firm widely known for its excellent taste in the usages of good printing.

CHAPTER XI.

(Heading) COMPOUND WORDS.

(Subheads)	{	GENERAL PRINCIPLES
		COMPOUND NOUNS MADE OF TWO NOUNS
		SOME WORDS USED AS INSEPARABLE SUFFIXES

RULE LVI.

156. Examples and Numbered Items.—*Begin with capitals the initial words of examples and of numbered items if they are complete sentences.*

A proverb is a wise saying; as, Honesty is the best policy.

157. When items are mere words, phrases, or clauses of no special prominence, capitals are unnecessary.

Letters are divided into two classes; (1) vowels, (2) consonants.

Astronomers tell us (1) that the surface of Jupiter is nearly red hot; (2) that it is incapable of supporting organic life; (3) that etc.

In technical and other treatises, subjects of chief interest, when given as numbered items, require capitals.

In the following chapter we shall treat; (1) of Exponents, (2) of Radical Quantities, (3) of etc.

With respect to matters that belong under this rule, usage is by no means uniform. Taste and consistency must determine what is best in each case.

RULE LVII.

158. Quoted Titles.—*In quoting titles of books, essays, poems, etc., capitalize nouns, pronouns, adjectives (not articles), verbs and adverbs.*

Whitney's "Life and Growth of Language"; Tyndall's "Hours of Exercise in the Alps."

159. The foregoing is the rule in common use, but it is often inexpedient in practice. A late writer gives the following rule as better than that given above:

In headings capitalize all important, emphatic, and contrasted words.

When it is remembered that a common usage is not to capitalize *prepositions, conjunctions, and articles*, the need for the rule just given will be seen. In titles or heads of chapters, words usually unimportant become important on account of *emphasis, contrast, etc.*

Acting WITH and Acting AGAINST.

Concerning the Use of "A" and "An."

Should it be "Of" or "From" ?

RULE LVIII.

160. Names of Deity.—*Names and titles of God and Christ should begin with capitals.*

Jehovah, Father, Creator, Son of God, Almighty, Supreme Being, First Cause, Infinite One, etc.

161. Adjectives used with names of Deity require no capitals unless they are to be regarded as a necessary part of the names. Hence,

The all-wise Father, the divine Master, the merciful Father, LORD God omnipotent.

The following are taken from a recent edition of the Bible:

Lord God Almighty (in address), the Most High, the Holy One, the King of glory, the God of heaven, I am the good shepherd, that great Shepherd, the God of peace, Son of man, Lord of lords and King of kings, etc.

These will serve to show that modifying phrases should not in general be capitalized.

A pronoun having as antecedent some name of Deity need not for that reason alone be capitalized. This is done to an absurd extent, especially in printed hymns and prayers.

RULE LIX.

162. Roman Numerals.—*Numbers required in referring to passages in books are sometimes denoted by capital letters.*

Spencer's "Sociology," Vol. II, Part V, Chap. VIII, § 494, p. 409.

Later usage seems to prefer small letters.

Whatley's "Logic," book ii, ch. iii, § v, p. 118.

References to passages in the Bible are now generally given in the following manner:

I Ki. 3:1; Judg. 3:8-10; Matt. 7:9, 12-15; 12:8-15.

RULE LX.

163. Proper Names.—*Begin all proper names with capitals.*

Albert, Napoleon, Russia, the Pacific, August, Saturday, Easter.

164. When a name is made up of two or more elements one of which is an ordinary class name, only the specific element should be capitalized.

The Arctic ocean, the Spanish main, the Dead sea, Aleutian islands, Yukon river, Decoration day, the sabbath day or the Sabbath day, Wall street, Fifth avenue, etc.

Usage in this matter is by no means uniform, but economy in the use of capitals is generally better than the opposite practice. In naming streets, well known buildings or other structures, it is common to begin every element with a capital.

Washington Avenue, Park Row, Brooklyn Bridge, Bunker Hill Monument, etc.

165. When the specific element of a geographical name follows the generic, and no article precedes, both should usually begin with capitals; as, *Lake Como*, *Mt. Washington*, *Rio Grande* (*rio* = river), *Cape May*, etc. But we should write, the *river Thames*, the *lake Victoria Nyanza*, the

peninsula of Arabia, the state of New Jersey, the land of the Midnight Sun or midnight sun, the land of Nod, of bondage, of promise, etc.

Words denoting direction, when used to name countries or districts, should have initial capitals.

They live in the *South*, the trappers of the *Northwest*, the *Orient*, the *Occident*, the *Levant*, the *Far West*, the *Boreal* regions, etc.

166. The names of the chief of the evil spirits and the places and characters of mythology should begin with capitals when they are used strictly as proper names; the same is true of the constellations; as, *Satan, Zeus, Pluto, Hades, Gehenna, Sheol, Venus, Somnus, Belial, Orion, Libra, Elysium*, etc.

Exceptions to this are, *devil, heaven, hell, paradise, purgatory, pandemonium*, and some others of very frequent use.

167. When a compound word contains an element derived from a proper noun, that element should begin with a capital only when a hyphen precedes.

Antichrist or antichrist, post-Homeric, Preraphaelite, preadamite, antenicene, etc.

RULE LXI.

168. Sacred Writings.—*Expressions used to denote writings regarded as sacred, or any portion of such writings, should be written with initial capitals.*

The Holy Bible, the Good Book, the Sacred Scriptures, the Old Testament, the Pentateuch, the Koran, the Zend-Avesta, the Vedas.

RULE LXII.

169. Derivations from Proper Names.—*Words derived from proper names generally begin with capitals.*

Hebraic, Jovian, Romance, Brahminic, Teutonic, Mohammedan, Spanish, Elizabethan, etc.

170. Many words derived from proper names are now written with small initials.

Damask, china, simony, stentorian, herculean, tantalize, hector, philippic, boreal, argosy, cyclopean, hermetical, epicure, cashmere, champagne, oceanic, hymeneal, mercurial, volcanic, etc.

The names of the elements and of minerals, whether derived from proper names or not, should begin with small letters; as, *gallium*, *scandium*, *danaite*, *caledonite*, etc.

RULE LXIII.

171. Zoological Names.—*In writing the double scientific names of animal organisms, only the first of generic element should be capitalized.*

Crotalus horridus (rattlesnake), *Salmo clarkii* (trout of Columbia river).

Even when a variety term is added it should always be written with a small initial.

Athya ferina, var. *americana* (Red-headed Duck).

RULE LXIV.

172. Botanical Names.—*Generic names in botany should always begin with capitals, and specific names also, if they are derived from proper names.*

Claytonia Virginica, *Epigæa repens*, *Fragaria Virginiana*, var. *Illinænsis*.

173. It is unfortunate that there should be a difference in the matter of capitalization between botanical and zoological names. But it should be noted that some standard works are abandoning initial capitals for specific names in botany. Thus, in Loudon's "Encyclopedia of Botany" specific terms derived from the names of countries are written without capitals; as, *persica*, *japonica*, *californica*, *jamaicensis*, *chinensis*, etc. This is as it should be, and it is to be hoped that the usage in botany may soon conform with that in zoology. Specific botanical terms derived from the names of persons are, however, generally capitalized.

RULE LXV.

174. Personification.—*In vivid personification, the personified noun should begin with a capital.*

“With eyes upraised, as one inspired,
Pale Melancholy sate retired.”—*Collins*.

“And Melancholy marked him for his own.”—*Gray*.

This usage is less common now than formerly, and is confined almost entirely to poetry. Even there, the best writers employ it but rarely. The following seem better as their authors give them, and yet the personification is strong in each:

“Friends depart, and memory takes them
To her caverns, pure and deep.”—*Bayly*.

“Moping melancholy,
And moon-struck madness.”—*Milton*.

It was formerly the rule to capitalize the following: *nature*, the *seasons*—*spring, summer, autumn, winter, time*, the *hours, dawn, night*, the *graces*, the *muses, music*, and many other inanimate things, especially in poetry. This, however, is not now considered in the best taste, unless the personification is peculiarly strong.

RULE LXVI.

175. Terms Defined.—*Words to be defined or explained are either capitalized or printed in heavy type or in Italic.*

A Verb is a word etc. A **verb** is a word etc. A *pronoun* is a word that denotes persons or things without naming them.

Under this rule may be included ordinary words occurring in the body of the text, and regarded as of extraordinary importance.

The region was in the heart of Ethiopia near the source of the river Zaire. Over the region there brooded a Presence—a Shadow, weird, intangible, oppressive.

It should be remarked that this is one of the tricks or devices employed in what has been contemptuously called “fine writing.” For true excellence the ordinary resources of expression are always sufficient [see, however, rule LXVIII].

RULE LXVII.

176. Titles.—*Titles of honor, respect, and office should begin with capitals.*

His Honor the Mayor, His Excellency the Governor, Your Royal Highness, Dear Sir, My dear Madam, etc.

When used in a specific sense, as in rules, reports, and documents, such words as *president, chairman, directors, committee, school, institution, congress*, etc. should be capitalized; in ordinary generic use, small letters should be used.

Official or honorary titles, when prefixed to proper names, should have initial capitals.

Professor Whitney, President McKinley, Admiral Dewey, Governor Roosevelt, Peace Commissioner Schurman, Pope Leo, Secretary of State John Hay.

Prefixed terms denoting mere relationship should begin with small letters; as, *cousin John, aunt Mary, uncle Smith*. When, however, these words do not denote real but official relationship, as is the case of officials in the Roman Catholic church, capitals are required; as, *Brother Azarias, Sister Dorcas*, etc.

RULE LXVIII.

177. Important Words.—*Words and expressions that for any reason are of special importance, are capitalized in the same manner as quoted titles.*

Such are the following:

(a) *Events.*

The Siege of Troy, the War of the Rebellion, the War of the Spanish Succession, Battle of Manila Bay.

(b) *Epochs.*

The Renaissance, the Age of Stone, the Reformation, the Christian Era.

(c) *Phenomena.*

The Milky Way, the Gulf Stream, the Aurora Borealis, the Midnight Sun.

When such matters are introduced informally, and without obvious intention to emphasize their importance, unneces-

sary capitals are to be avoided. It is by discriminating carefully in such cases that a writer may show his good taste.

RULE LXIX.

178. I and O.—*The pronoun I and the interjection O should always be capitals.*

The interjection *oh* should not be written with a capital, unless, as is often the case, it begins a sentence or a line of poetry.

LETTER WRITING.

(PART 1.)

HISTORICAL INTRODUCTION.

But words are things, and a small drop of ink,
Falling, like dew, upon a thought, produces
That which makes thousands, perhaps millions, think.—*Byron*.

1. The antiquity of letter writing is undoubted. Since the very existence of an organized form of government depends on means of communication between the governing power and the governed, the sovereign, from the very remotest antiquity, has kept himself in touch with the ministers of his power and the agents of his authority by means of letters. Nor is there any room for doubt that commerce extended its influences and multiplied its benefits, even in the earliest ages, by like means. Learning, too, diffused its blessings not only within the confines of one state or country, but through various countries by means of letters exchanged between learned men and their disciples or admirers; while the ties of friendship and of kindred were, no doubt, also maintained and strengthened by letters despatched from city to city, from port to port, from country to country.

The civilization of ancient Egypt was strikingly benefited by this system of intercommunication between community and community, individual and individual. The Phenicians

carried their commerce and letters to every portion of the known world. The Greeks, who surpassed in point of culture all other peoples of antiquity, held close communication with one another ; and by means of letters the various Greek colonies of Asia Minor and of Italy were kept closely bound in thought, in trade, and in tongue to the mother land. The Roman empire owed much of its strength to its unrivaled system of roads, spreading throughout its vast extent, thus bringing its furthest dependencies into close contact with the imperial city on the Tiber. We know from Gibbon and other historians that the Roman government maintained frequent and regular communication with its representatives in all the provinces. We know, also, that the men of letters, who flocked to Rome from every part of the empire, kept themselves, by means of epistolary communication, at the command of disciples in every city yielding obedience to Roman sway. The literary remains of antiquity show, with remarkable unanimity, that the learned men of old excelled as letter writers.

Herodotus mentions that a system of couriers existed in the Persian empire, and Xenophon states that post stations or houses were established by King Cyrus. Marco Polo describes a similar system existing in China in the 13th century, the stations being only three miles apart, thus securing great rapidity of communication. Among the ancient Aztecs in Mexico a complete system of couriers was likewise maintained, the stations being about two leagues apart, and providing a rapid means of communication by foot-messengers. In all these cases the posts seem to have been set up for the government service only.

2. During the last few years the Babylonian collection of the British Museum has been enriched by the important addition of several thousand tablets obtained chiefly by Dr. Budge during his expeditions to the East. Among the principal objects are a large number of small tablets, many of them of the envelope, or duplicate, class, which were found at Tell-sifr, in South Babylonia, representing the ancient

city of Larsa (the Ellasar of Genesis xiv). The majority of these were contracts or legal documents, but among them are many letters, both private and official. This collection has been carefully arranged, and is found to contain one of the most important series of inscriptions ever rescued from oriental ruins. It is a group of fifty letters, written by King Khammurabi, king of Babylon, who reigned about 2300 B. C., and who is generally identified with the Amraphel of Genesis xiv. These tablets are certainly the oldest known letters in the world; they belong to a period one thousand years earlier than that of the famous Tel-el-Amarna tablets, which give the private correspondence between the kings of Syria, Mitanni, and Babylon, and may be dated about 1450 B. C.

The position of these Babylonian letters in oriental literature is of extreme importance. They reveal the existence of a regular system of correspondence between rulers and their subordinates, and indicate that writing was used not only to record events in royal annals, but also for ordinary purposes; they are, besides, manifestly the models for all succeeding letters, as in the case of the diplomatic correspondence in the Tel-el-Amarna tablets. The present find is indeed great; but one can only regard it as a prelude to still more important discoveries, which will probably put a new aspect on the vexed question of Hebrew origins. To possess letters of the time of Abraham is certainly an astonishing result of oriental exploration, and one that far exceeds the wildest dreams of those that first revealed to us the buried cities of Assyria and Babylonia.

3. Frequent mention is made in the Old Testament of letters sent and received. In II Samuel xi: 14, we read that David wrote a letter to Joab; in I Kings xxi: 8: "She [Jezebel] wrote letters in Ahab's name, and sealed them with his seal"; in II Kings v: 5, the king of Syria said: "I will send a letter unto the king of Israel"; in II Chronicles xxx: 1: "Hezekiah wrote letters also to Ephraim and Manasseh"; and in the 6th verse of the same chapter: "The posts went with letters from the king"; in Isaiah

xxxvii: 14: "Hezekiah received the letter"; and in Jeremiah xxix: 1: "These *are* the words of the letter that Jeremiah the prophet sent."

4. The greatest of letter writers, the Apostle Paul, employed at all times the flexible yet forceful Greek tongue in that marvelous manner which has made his words of life more potent and more fecund in each succeeding age. Witness, for instance, how in his letter to the Romans he wins his way to their hearts: "For I long to see you, that I may impart unto you some spiritual gift, to the end that ye may be established; that is, that I may be comforted together with you by the mutual faith both of you and me." Read his words of ringing, explicit good counsel to the Corinthians: "Now, I beseech you, brethren, by the name of our Lord Jesus Christ, that ye all speak the same thing, and that there be no divisions among you; but that ye be perfectly joined together in the same mind and in the same judgment." Then turn to his lucid yet kindly admonition to the Galatians: "I marvel that ye are so soon removed from him that called you into the grace of Christ unto another gospel: which is not another; but there be some that trouble you, and would pervert the gospel of Christ."

5. In the early ages of Christianity the teachers and preachers of Gospel truth kept themselves in close communication with their followers by means of letter writing. This custom was maintained long after pagan persecution had spent its fury.

In the monastic ages, letters from one religious house to another kept the brethren of each order in communication with their superiors, and with those living under the same rule in other portions of Europe. There are numerous evidences of letters in these troublous times from bishops to their flocks, from abbots to their subjects. The clergy were among the principal letter writers, and the mendicant friars among the chief letter bearers of those days. The era of the reformation gave the world a new impulse towards letters, which the discovery of printing had already quickened.

From what has been already stated, it may easily be inferred that the germ of the modern postal systems of the world is to be looked for in the earliest organized systems of the government couriers. When, or under what precise circumstances, such an establishment was first made available for the carriage of the letters of private persons, there is no satisfactory evidence to show. That there must have been, even in early times, a connection more or less authorized between the transmission of public and of private correspondence is highly probable.

In several Continental states the universities had inland postal establishments of a rudimentary sort at an early date. The University of Paris, for example, organized a postal service almost at the beginning of the 13th century, and it lasted, in a measure, until the year 1719. In various parts of England mercantile guilds and brotherhoods were licensed to establish posts for commercial purposes. But everywhere—as far as accessible evidence extends—foreign posts were under state control. As early as the middle of the 13th century entries occur in the wardrobe accounts of the kings of England of payments to royal messengers for the conveyance of letters to various parts of the country.

6. The rise of the postal service in England may be said to date from the accession of James I. The new royal orders of 1603 directed (1) that the postmasters at the various stages should enjoy the privilege of letting horses to "those riding in post with horn and guide," by commission or otherwise, and to that end they were charged to keep or have in readiness a sufficient number of horses; (2) that the lawful charge for the hire of each horse should be, for public messengers, at the rate of 2½*d.* a mile. Finally, it was directed that every postmaster should keep at least two horses for the express conveyance of government letters, and to forward such letters within a quarter of an hour of their receipt, and that the posts should travel at the rate of not less than seven miles an hour in summer, and five miles in winter.

Between the date of the accession of James and the date of the Act of Anne, various systems of postal communications were established under the authority of the government. Among the persons prominent in postal affairs during this period were James and Charles Stanhope, who were appointed jointly to the postmastership of England in 1607; John Hill, who in 1653 placed relays of post horses between York and London and reduced the former postal rates by one-half; and William Dockura and Robert Murray, who jointly established the famous penny post in London.

The Act of Anne consolidated the various postal systems in the British empire, reorganized the chief letter office of Edinburgh, Dublin, and New York, and settled new offices in the West Indies and elsewhere. It established rates of single postage; viz, English, 3*d*. if under 80 miles, and 4*d*. if above, and 6*d*. to Edinburgh or Dublin. Nine years after the passing of the Act of Anne the cross-posts were farmed to the well known Ralf Allen, inventor of the cross-roads postal system. Allen's improvements were so successful that he is said to have netted, during forty-two years, an average profit of nearly £12,000 a year.

The first important impulse to the development of the latent powers of the post office, both as a public agency and as a source of revenue, was given by the shrewdness and energy of John Palmer. His notice was attracted to the subject in October, 1782. So habitual were the robberies of the post that they came to be regarded by its officials as among the necessary conditions of human affairs. At this period, in addition to the recognized perils of the roads, the postal system was characterized by extreme irregularities in the departure of mails and delivery of letters, the average speed being about three and one-half miles an hour. Palmer suggested that by building mail coaches of a construction expressly adapted to run at a good speed, by furnishing a liberal supply of horses, and by attaching an armed guard to each coach, the public would be greatly benefited and the post revenue increased. The experiment was made in August, 1784, and its success exceeded all expectation.

The interval between the development of Palmer's improved methods and the still more important reform, twenty-seven years later, by Sir Rowland Hill, is chiefly marked by the growth of the packet system, and by the investigations of the revenue commissioners of 1826 and the following years.

7. The beginning of a postal service in the United States dates from 1639, when a house in Boston was employed for the receipt and delivery of letters for or from beyond the seas. In 1672 the government of New York colony established "a post to go monthly from New York to Boston"; in 1702 it was changed to a fortnightly one. A general post office was established and erected in Virginia in 1692, and in Philadelphia in 1693. In 1789, when the post office was transferred to the new federal government, the number of offices in the thirteen colonies was only about seventy-five.

The following are the leading events in the history of the American postal service: The negotiation of a postal treaty with England (1846); the introduction of postage stamps (1847); of stamped envelopes (1852); of the system of registering letters (1855); the establishment of the free-delivery system and of the traveling post-office system (1863); the introduction of the money-order system (1864), of postal cards (1873); and, between the last two dates, of stamped newspaper wrappers, and of envelopes bearing requests for the return of the enclosed letter to the writer in case of non-delivery; the formation of the Universal Postal Union (1873); the issue of "postal notes" payable to bearer (1883), and the establishment of a special-delivery system (1885), in which letters bearing an extra 10-cent stamp are delivered by special messengers immediately on arrival.

The number of post offices in the United States is larger than in any other country; but as regards the number of persons employed the United States takes third rank. The United States provides a post office for every 1,003 persons, while in Great Britain the proportion is one to every 2,105 persons. The following table shows the progress of the

United States postal system during the past thirty-three years:

UNITED STATES POST-OFFICE STATISTICS.

Fiscal Year.	Number of Post Offices.	Extent of Post Routes in Miles.	Fiscal Year.	Number of Post Offices.	Extent of Post Routes in Miles.
1865. . . .	20,550	142,340	1886. . . .	53,614	366,667
1870. . . .	28,492	231,232	1887. . . .	55,157	373,142
1875. . . .	35,547	277,873	1888. . . .	57,281	*403,977
1876. . . .	36,383	281,798	1889. . . .	58,999	*416,159
1877. . . .	37,345	292,820	1890. . . .	62,401	427,991
1878. . . .	39,258	301,966	1891. . . .	64,329	439,027
1879. . . .	40,855	316,711	1892. . . .	67,119	447,591
1880. . . .	42,989	343,888	1893. . . .	68,403	453,832
1881. . . .	44,512	344,006	1894. . . .	69,805	454,746
1882. . . .	46,231	343,618	1895. . . .	70,064	456,026
1883. . . .	47,863	353,166	1896. . . .	70,360	463,313
1884. . . .	50,017	359,530	1897. . . .	71,022	470,032
1885. . . .	51,252	365,251	1898. . . .	73,570	480,462

In 1898, the revenue of the department was \$89,012,618; the expenditure, \$98,033,523; amount paid for salaries of postmasters, \$17,460,621; amount paid for transportation of the mail, \$51,780,283.

DEFINITIONS: IMPORTANCE OF LETTER WRITING.

8. A letter is a written or printed communication from one person to another person or other persons.

Correspondence may be defined as the act of communication by means of letters.

There are two well defined classes of letters: (1) *private*, or *personal*, letters, which are of direct interest only to those to whom they are addressed; (2) *public*, or *open*, letters, which, though addressed to some particular person, are of general interest and are intended for the public.

* Includes mail, messenger, and special office service. Of the whole number of post offices at the close of the fiscal year, June 30, 1898, 3,816 were Presidential offices and 69,754 were fourth-class offices.

Private letters may be divided into two general classes; viz., *business* letters and *social* letters.

Business letters are those relating to business affairs, such as are written by merchants, bankers, lawyers, manufacturers, etc., in connection with their occupation or profession.

Included under business letters are the so called **official** letters, those written to or by persons holding official positions or public office. Such letters are those written by army and navy officers, presidents, governors, and heads of departments of a national or state government.

Social letters are those written to relatives, friends, and acquaintances, and which originate in social and personal relations rather than in business relations. They include domestic or family letters, letters of congratulation, letters of condolence, letters of introduction, in short, all letters prompted by friendship or affection.

Public letters are chiefly essays on political and state affairs. They are given to the public through the medium of newspapers and magazines, and are usually addressed to the editor, though sometimes an open letter is addressed to some noted public character. The leading daily newspapers in New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago publish weekly public letters from their Washington and London correspondents.

9. The importance of letter writing, both in business and as an educational accomplishment, cannot be overestimated. Business must to a large extent be transacted by means of correspondence; and one of the leading requisites to business success is the ability to discharge the important duties pertaining to correspondence in a manner satisfactory to all concerned.

Samuel Smiles says: "Attention, application, accuracy, method, punctuality, and despatch, are the principal qualities required for the efficient conduct of business of any sort." These business qualities have in business correspondence a very large field of action.

Business habits, cultivated and disciplined, are found alike useful in every calling, whether in politics, literature,

science, or art. The best literary work has been done by men systematically trained in business pursuits—especially in business correspondence. The same industry, application, economy of time and labor, which have rendered them useful in one sphere of employment, have been found equally available in another. The business man must remember that it is by his correspondence that he must, to a large extent, be judged. For the young man entering, or about to enter, on a business career this is a consideration of vital importance. The young man that has already fluent and accurate command of language is very soon recognized not alone in business circles, but by his fellow citizens generally. His letters speak for him. He acquires the respect and confidence of those from whom he purchases, the esteem of those to whom he sells, and rapidly secures the favor of all his neighbors.

To the artisan, also, the art of letter writing is of inestimable value. By its means he may not only keep in touch with his fellow man in all the fraternal relations of social life, but may benefit himself by being thus enabled to express himself on paper with clearness and conciseness. He may have an application to make for promotion or advancement in salary. The mechanic who can set forth in a letter, correctly and concisely, his demands and purposes, stands much nearer to promotion and increase of salary than one who cannot do so. The mechanic known to be qualified in this direction is certain to be called on by his fellow workmen to assume positions of trust and responsibility, either in their trade organizations, or in the civic community of which he forms a part.

THE FRAMEWORK OF THE LETTER.

10. Introductory Remark. In this section we shall deal chiefly with the arrangement of the various essential parts that make up the structure or framework of the letter, and with the formalities to be observed in writing and sending the letter. The proper formation of sentences,

paragraphs, etc. and the construction of the body of the letter in accordance with rhetorical rules will receive consideration under "Invention and Expression."

Before entering upon a description of the parts of a letter, we shall consider briefly the materials used in letter writing.

MATERIALS.

PAPER.

11. Varieties.—Of the many varieties of paper manufactured, comparatively few are considered suitable for correspondence. In general, also, the style of paper depends in some degree on the character of the correspondence; paper suitable for business letters is not always permissible for social letters.

Formerly *note paper*, that is, paper with four pages to the sheet, was largely used both in business and social correspondence; at the present time, however, nearly all business letters, in this country at least, are written on *letter paper*, which is made only in single sheets. Probably the change from note paper to letter paper was due largely to the introduction of the typewriting machine.

In social correspondence, note paper is still used almost exclusively. The style and sizes generally used are: *billit*, 4 in. \times 6 in.; *commercial note*, 5 in. \times 8 in.; and *packet note*, about $5\frac{1}{2}$ in. \times 9 in. The latter variety is much used by gentlemen. Letter paper varies in size from 8 in. \times 10 in. to 9 in. \times 11 in. For short business letters, smaller sizes (5 in. \times 8 in., $5\frac{1}{2}$ in. \times $8\frac{1}{2}$ in., corresponding to commercial note and packet note) may be used. It may be noted that a sheet of 8" \times 10" letter paper when once folded makes a sheet of 5" \times 8" commercial note.

Never use less than a full sheet of paper no matter how

INK.

16. The ink should flow freely and permit the formation of distinct lines and characters. Black ink is now almost universally used in all correspondence, and it is considered in much better taste than colored inks, one of the objections to the latter being their liability to fade. Letters that are to be copied are written with a special ink called copying ink, which will give one or more copies of the letter when it is placed in the letter press. In contact with moisture, copying ink smears and spreads; it should never be used, therefore, for letters that are not to be copied.

PARTS OF A LETTER.

17. The essential parts of a letter are:

1. The *heading*, including date.
2. The *address*.
3. The *salutation*.
4. The *body*.
5. The *complimentary close*.
6. The *subscription*, or *signature*.
7. The *superscription*, or *outside address*.

The incidental parts are:

1. The *postscript*, with its continuations or iterations, *paulo-postscript*, *post-paulo-postscript*, and so on.
2. The *nota bene*.
3. The *enclosure*.
4. The *stamp*.
5. The *return directions*.

The address and salutation together—when the address is placed at the top of the letter—constitute the **introduction**.

The complimentary close and subscription—and the address when placed at the close of the letter—constitute the **conclusion**.

18. General Form.—The following letter shows the usual arrangement of the various parts of an ordinary business letter:

(Heading and Date.)

540 Sewell St., PORTLAND, MAINE,
Feb. 22, 1899.

(Address.)

MR. JOHN W. PLAYFAIR,
President First National Bank,
558 Jackson Boulevard,
Chicago, Ill.

(Salutation.)

DEAR SIR:

(Body.)

Mr. George Williams of your city has called to interest me in the purchase of a large tract of timber and mining lands in Northern Wisconsin. Mr. Williams impresses me favorably, and his propositions appear quite reasonable on their face.

I have, however, deferred giving him a final answer till I hear from you regarding his standing in business circles in Chicago. He speaks of you as an acquaintance, and since I claim you as a friend, your advice will be as welcome as it must be valuable.

(Complimentary Close.)

I am, dear Sir,

Very sincerely yours,

(Signature.)

WILLIAM HUTCHESON.

THE HEADING.

19. The heading includes both the place, which is the address of the writer, and the time of writing; as, "540 Sewell St., Portland, Maine, Feb. 22, 1899." The word "date" is correctly used in this technical sense when we say, "Your letter dated Portland, Maine, Feb. 22, 1899, is received."

In business letters the heading should usually occupy two lines; in social letters it may occupy two or three and sometimes four lines—two or three for the place, and one for the time. If the heading is short, it may be written in a single line as shown in Form 1, following. As a rule it is advisable to use as few lines as is possible without making the heading look crowded and awkward. The use of many lines in either heading, address, signature, or superscription is to be avoided.

In business letters the heading should begin about 1 inch,

and in social letters 2 inches from the top of the page, not far from the middle of the line, and should end at or very near the right margin.

Printed forms of a more or less elaborate and ornate design are so much in use for business letter headings that no cast-iron rule can be laid down to govern the precise form of the heading. In these printed forms the heading sometimes occupies several lines and often contains some brief statement or statements explanatory of the purposes, standing, and claims of the firm making use of the forms.

It is easy to see that the items of place should be in the order mentioned—the larger following the smaller, the container following the contained.

As to time, the form most generally employed in America is, "Feb. 22, 1899." We cannot, however, see any valid objection to the form, "22 Feb. 1899," often used in Great Britain and the British colonies.

All letters, notes, cards, missives epistolary of every kind, should be dated. To omit the date is or may be an inconvenience, and therefore a breach of propriety; in business it is sheer impertinence, and everywhere vulgar. In replying to an undated missive, especially if a business letter, it is proper to call attention to the absence of a date, in some way, so that if it were an inadvertence, the writer may avoid the error next time. A business letter in reply to an undated one may very properly begin in some such way as this: "In reply to your favor without date just received—"; and to a second from the same source: "In reply to your dateless letter just received—."

20. Punctuation. The various parts of the heading are separated by commas; a period is placed after each abbreviation and at the end of the heading. All important words of the heading begin with capital letters. The numeral indicating the day of the month should not be followed by *d*, *st*, or *th* when the year is written; thus, "May 3, 1899," instead of "May 3d, 1899." In such an expression as "Your letter of the 15th inst. is at hand," the suffix is added.

21. Specimens of Headings.—Various forms of headings are shown in the following:

FORM 1.

FLINT, MICH., June 3, 1897.

FORM 2.

ELSIE, CLINTON CO., MICH.,
Dec. 20, 1895.

FORM 3.

623 Washington Ave.,
SCRANTON, PA.,
Jan. 5, 1899.

FORM 4.

Lithia Springs,
SHELBYVILLE, ILLINOIS,
July 4, 1898.

FORM 5.

PENNSYLVANIA.
OFFICE OF THE
SECRETARY OF THE COMMONWEALTH,
HARRISBURG.

October 22, 1898.

In case the writer and his correspondent live in the same city, the subjoined form may be used:

FORM 6.

528 JEFFERSON AVE.,
March 1, 1899.

Sometimes the name of the residence of the writer is alone used, as:

FORM 7.

ELM PARK,
March 9, 1899.

In the case of brief and informal notes from one person to another in the same town, it is quite customary and regular to use as a heading only the day of the week; for instance, "Tuesday," or "Thursday," or whatever the day of the writing may be. This simple date may be placed at the top or at the lower left-hand corner of the letter or note.

FORM 8.

TUESDAY.

DEAR PAPA:

I shall see you tomorrow, etc.

FORM 9.

THE COLLIERY ENGINEER CO.,
Proprietors.THE INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS
of Scranton, Pa., U. S. A.
Industrial Science taught by Mail.
SCRANTON, PA., U. S. A.
Mar. 24, 1899.

FORM 10.

E. L. KELLOGG & Co.,
Educational Publishers,
61 East Ninth Street, New York.

Dec. 29, 1898.

22. Date at the End of a Letter.—The writing of the place and date at the lower left corner, though quite admissible, and in some places customary in the matter of social letters, is, in the case of business letters, annoying to those that desire to note at once the date of the letter. It is better not to indulge in any eccentricities in such matters. For people that have nothing else to do, it may be allowable; but busy people do not have time to look in unusual places for headings, addresses, signatures, etc.

Here is an example of the heading placed at the end of a social letter:

Your very sincere friend,

ANDREW JACKSON SMITH.

920 Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Ill.,
April 6, 1899.

THE ADDRESS AND SALUTATION.

23. The address when complete contains the name, title, and residence of the person to whom the letter is sent. The salutation is the greeting, as "Dear Sir," "Sir," "My dear George," and the like, with which it is usual to begin a letter.

An example of a complete introduction is shown in the letter of Art. 18. The first line contains the name and title, "Mr. John W. Playfair"; the third and fourth lines contain the residence, "558 Jackson Boulevard, Chicago, Ill." By the term residence we do not necessarily mean the private residence of a person, but the place where he gets his mail; in other words, the post-office address. The residence given in the address should be the same as that given in the superscription or the address on the envelope. Additional remarks upon this point will be found under the heading "Superscription."

When a person holds a distinctive office or business position, the address is made more definite by including this office or position. In the example given, the gentleman addressed is president of a bank; hence, this fact is indicated by the second line, "President First National Bank." This feature of the address is shown in forms 4 and 5.

In business correspondence the address should never be omitted. The envelope may be torn or thrown away, and the letter must be consulted for the address to the reply. Every business letter should contain the full address of both the writer and the person to whom the letter is written.

24. The Salutation.—What the salutation shall be must be determined, of course, by the relation between the writer and the party addressed. Our most formal, private, or unofficial salutations are "Sir" and "Madam." These are almost impersonal, and belong to such persons as we may wish to accost with civility. In the correspondence from Government offices, in Washington and elsewhere, these are the regular salutations used to persons without official titles, and to many with such titles. In like manner, Sir is the correct salutation to use in addressing the civil officials of the Government, both general and state, that have no special title inherent in the offices they hold. The rigid brevity of the formal Sir is being replaced, gradually though slowly, in both official and private correspondence, by "Dear Sir"; and this, eventually, if it ever supersede Sir, must do so by

gradually taking on the meaning that Sir now has. When Sir is the salutation, the complimentary close should be "Yours respectfully," or something correspondingly distant. These forms are the ones most frequently used in our Government correspondence, both civil and military. The usage at Washington is followed generally in the Government sub-offices throughout the country, so that it is safe to use Sir in all such cases.

The epistolary plural of Sir is "Gentlemen," and this has its French *Messieurs*—always abbreviated "Messrs."—as a correlative. Messrs. is restricted in use as "Mr." is, and should rarely, if ever, be used alone in place of Gentlemen, and for the same reason that Mr. is so restricted. It is accordingly incorrect to use Messrs. as the salutation of a letter, in place of Gentlemen, or Dear Sirs. Between firms the salutation should be Gentlemen, with, under special circumstances of rare occurrence, Dear Sirs; the complimentary close—which must always correspond to the salutation—should be Yours respectfully, or something equivalent to it.

The character of the salutation should correspond with the writer's relation to the person addressed. Strangers may be addressed as "Sir," "Dear Sir," or "Madam"; acquaintances, as "Dear Sir," "Dear Mr. Smith," "Dear Miss Franklin," etc. Friends may be addressed, "Friend Maynard," "Friend Margaret," "Dear Friend," "My dear Eaton," etc. Near relatives and intimate friends may be addressed as "My dear Father," "My dear Edward," "Dearest Mary," etc. Good taste will usually dictate the proper salutation in any given case.

25. Position of the Address.—The address is placed either at the beginning or at the end of the letter. In this connection the following rules should be observed:

1. In *business* letters, the address should be placed at the beginning of the letter, preceding the salutation.
2. In *official* letters, the address may occupy either position.
3. In letters not of a business nature, the address should

preferably be placed at the top, if the person addressed is a stranger or even an acquaintance with whom the writer is not intimate.

4. Because of the formality involved in placing the address at the top of a letter, we should, in letters to intimate friends or near relatives, place the address at the bottom. In this case, the introduction consists of the salutation alone, as shown in forms 1 and 2.

The proper arrangement of the address is shown in the specimen addresses, Art. 28. The first line of the address begins at about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch from the left edge of the sheet. The line should be the first or second below the date. No part of the post-office address should be written on the first line with the name.

26. Position of the Salutation.—If the address is placed at the end of the letter, the salutation occupies the position usually given to the first line of the address. If the address consists of two lines, the salutation may be started about 1 inch to the right of the initial letter of the second line of the address, as shown in form 3. When, however, the address consists of three or more lines, it is preferable to begin the salutation immediately under the initial letter of the first line of the address. See forms 4, 5, 6, 9, and 10, following. Some writers prefer to begin the salutation under the initial letter of the second line of the address.

27. Punctuation.—The items of the address are separated by commas, and the address as a whole, whether it contains the name alone or the name and residence, is followed by a period. Thus, in form 7 following, a period, not a comma, should follow the name "Mrs. George Williamson." The salutation is usually followed by a colon, though frequently the comma is used instead. The colon is rather more formal than the comma. If the body of the letter begins on the same line as the salutation (see form 3), the comma or colon, whichever is used, should be followed by a dash; when the letter begins on the line below the salutation, there is no occasion for the dash, and it should not be used.

All abbreviations are followed by periods.

All important words of the introduction begin with capital letters; but the word *dear* in "My dear Friend" and like expressions should not begin with a capital.

28. Various Forms of Introduction.—The following are some specimens of the introductory portion of a letter:

FORM 1.

DEAR FRIEND HILL,

YOUR very much esteemed letter has given me genuine satisfaction, etc.

FORM 2.

MY DEAR IRENE,

We shall expect you without fail next Thursday, etc.

FORM 3.

MR. JOHN S. FORDEN,
Bangor, Me.

DEAR SIR.—In reply to your favor, etc.

FORM 4.

T. J. FOSTER, ESQ., Manager,
The International Correspondence Schools,
Scranton, Pa.

DEAR SIR:—I have the honor to enclose, etc.

FORM 5.

G. W. PORTER & SONS,
Contractors and Builders,
Rochester, N. Y.

GENTLEMEN —I beg to enclose plans, etc.

FORM 6.

THE HONORABLE M. S. QUAY,
U. S. Senator,
Washington, D.C.

SIR,

I respectfully beg to call your attention, etc.

FORM 7.

MRS. GEORGE WILLIAMSON.

DEAR MADAM:

Kindly accept our earnest congratulations, etc.

sometimes embarrassing to know how to address a person with whom one may have no personal acquaintance. In such a case it is permissible to use the following:

FORM 8.

BY CHAPMAN,
Petersburg, Va.

Your esteemed order of the 15th inst., etc.

A married lady with whom one has either no personal acquaintance or one that is very slight should be addressed as follows:

FORM 9.

J. S. BARKER,
Paris, Ill.

SIR:

FORM 10.

THE COLLIERY ENGINEER CO.,
Scranton, Pa.

GENTLEMEN:

In reply to your letter of October 22d, I beg to say, etc.

 THE BODY OF THE LETTER.

29. The body of a letter is the actual communication. It follows the salutation, and begins on the same line with the salutation or on the line below, according to the taste of the writer. As a rule, the body should begin on the same line if the address occupies three or more lines, and on the line below if the address occupies only one or two lines.

30. The Margin.—On the left-hand side of the sheet there should be a blank space or margin between the edge of the sheet and the beginning of the lines of writing. The width of this margin may vary from $\frac{1}{4}$ inch to $\frac{3}{4}$ inch, according to the width of the sheet. Care must be taken to make the margin of uniform width throughout the length of the page. Except the first lines of paragraphs, the first letter of every line, including the first line of the address and the

salutation, when the latter is begun at the margin, should start at the marginal line. If a writer has difficulty in keeping the margin even, the marginal line may actually be drawn with a lead pencil and afterwards erased. Such artificial aids are, however, to be avoided as much as possible. The first line of a paragraph should begin from $\frac{1}{2}$ inch to 1 inch to the right of the marginal line. There should be no margin on the right-hand edge of the sheet.

THE CONCLUSION.

31. The complimentary close follows the body of a letter and immediately precedes the signature. It is "I am, dear Sir, Very sincerely yours," "Yours respectfully," the "Faithfully yours," etc. with which we take leave of our correspondents. The place for it is one line or space below the last line of the body of the letter. It should generally begin one space, or about $\frac{1}{2}$ inch on letter paper, $\frac{3}{4}$ inch farther to the right than a paragraph. As to form, the complimentary close should correspond to the salutation; and like the salutation must depend upon the relation between the two parties to a letter, and must get its form from that relation. "Respectfully," "Very respectfully," "Most respectfully," etc. correspond to "Sir," "Madam," etc., and are the usual ones for formal or impersonal correspondence between individuals, both public and private. This, like the salutation, again, is to be softened, warmed, modified, and transformed to suit the relation of the two parties. "Dear Sir" and "Dear Madam" call for "Yours truly," "Yours sincerely," "Yours faithfully," and so on. The more familiar the salutation is, the more so should be the corresponding complimentary close. It would be incongruous if not absurd, for example, to begin a letter with "Sir" and close it with "Devotedly yours," as it would, on the other hand, to begin with "My dear Friend" and close with "Very respectfully yours."

The complimentary close used by the officials in government, and indeed in formal correspondence generally,

is "Yours respectfully." In personal letters this varies, wanes, and fluctuates through "Yours truly," "Yours faithfully," "Ever yours," "Yours till death," and a possible thousand or two others, all growing out of depth of feeling or of varied relations. In all cases of doubt, it is safer and in all respects better to err in the direction of too much than of too little ceremony or formality in this matter. Between firms in business, "Yours respectfully," or its equivalent in some form, is proper on all occasions, as is "Gentlemen" for a salutation.

To no portion of a letter should more exact attention be given than to its termination, for by no other portion may the writer be judged more accurately as to courtesy and good breeding.

32. Some of the most common forms of complimentary leave taking in letter writing are the following :

Yours truly,	Yours sincerely,
Yours very truly,	Very sincerely yours,
Faithfully,	Yours fraternally,
Very respectfully yours,	Affectionately yours,
Yours very faithfully,	Your loving father,
Cordially yours,	Your friend,
Most cordially yours,	Your affectionate son.
Yours gratefully,	

33. The **subscription**, or **signature**, should follow the complimentary close on the next line and should end at or near the right-hand edge of the sheet.

In regard to the signature two points should be observed: (1) write the name in full; (2) make the signature legible. The name should be written in full, so that, if through unforeseen circumstances the letter is sent to the dead-letter office, it may be returned to the writer. Of course, if a letter contains nothing of importance, it may be signed "John," or "Tom," or "Mary"; but if the letter has any value to the writer, particularly if it contains money, the full name and residence of the writer should be given. By the term full name we do not mean the unabbreviated name; thus, a person by the name of George Henry Adams may properly

write his signature "George H. Adams," "Geo. H. Adams," or "G. H. Adams"; and if he is familiarly known as Henry, he may write it "G. Henry Adams."

The writer should, of course, write all parts of a letter legibly; but the signature should receive particular attention in this respect. An illegible word in the body of the letter can usually be made out by its connection with the words preceding and following it; but there is no such assistance in deciphering an illegible signature. The recipient of a letter must use the signature for the address of his reply. If the signature is unreadable, the recipient, unless acquainted with the writer, may be compelled to cut out the signature and paste it on the envelope.

In writing to a stranger, a lady should indicate by her signature not only her sex, but whether she is married or single. This may be done by prefixing "Miss" or "Mrs." to the name. If the writer considers such a use of the title questionable, the title may be enclosed in parenthesis; thus: "(Miss) *Mary Saunders*." The Miss or Mrs. should not be used in writing to acquaintances or friends.

A person in an official or prominent business position may, and sometimes should, follow his name with an indication of his position; thus:

ALEXANDER WILLIAMS,
Chairman of Executive Committee.

GEORGE LAMB,
General Manager.

The *address* when written at the close of the letter forms part of the conclusion. It should in this case begin at the marginal line and on the line below the signature. The arrangement and punctuation of the parts of the address is the same as when it is written at the top of the letter (see Arts. 25 and 27).

34. Punctuation.—The complimentary close is followed by a comma and the signature is followed by a period. When the complimentary close is long and is arranged in

several lines, the parts are separated by commas. Each line of the complimentary close begins with a capital letter. In other respects, the ordinary rules are followed in the use of capitals.

35. Forms of Conclusion.—For the student's guidance, we submit some forms of conclusion:

FORM 1.

Very respectfully yours,
GEORGE FIELD.

FORM 2.

Very truly yours,
COOPER, COMMINGS & CO.
Per D.

FORM 3.

Yours affectionately,
SISTER IRENE.

FORM 4.

(Address at end.)

I am, Sir, with much consideration,
Your obedient servant,
NORMAN HOWARD.

The Reverend Dr. Lyman Abbott,
Brooklyn, N. Y.

FORM 5.

Very faithfully yours,
W. F. PRESTON,
Elkhart, Ind.

FORM 6.

I have the honor to be,
Your Excellency's obedient servant,
M. C. CAMERON.

The Governor of New York.

FORM 7.

I beg leave, Mr. Mayor, to subscribe myself with profound respect,
Yours faithfully,
GEORGE ELIOT.

The Mayor of New York.

When the writer is personally unknown to the person or firm written to and solicits a reply, he may sign thus:

FORM 8.

Very respectfully yours,
ALEXANDER TAYLOR,
64 York Street.

Or,

64 York St.

ALEXANDER TAYLOR.

The street and number may, however, be placed according to the writer's choice at the head of the letter.

FORM 9.

I beg to remain, dear Father,
Very affectionately,
Your son,
JOHN.

FORM 10.

With all my heart, I am, my dear Frank,
YOUR OWN MOTHER.

Terms of affection should never be abbreviated, as for instance, "Yours aff't'ly," for "Yours affectionately"; "Your aff. Son," for "Your affectionate Son."

THE SUPERScription.

36. The superscription is the outside address—the one written on the envelope, and the one for the postmaster and letter carrier to note. Like the address, the superscription consists of three parts: the name, the title, and the residence.

37. Arrangement.—The first line of the superscription contains the name and title. It should be written near the middle of the envelope. If the person addressed has an official or business position, this may occupy the second line; otherwise, the first item of the residence will be placed there. In general each item of the residence should occupy a separate line, but if the superscription is long, it is permissible to write the abbreviation for the state on the line with the city. Each line should begin a little distance to the right of the

line above it, and the end of the last line should be near the lower right-hand corner of the envelope. Care should be taken to have the lines parallel to the lower edge of the letter and the same distance apart.

If a letter is addressed to one person in care of another, the words "Care of ——" may occupy the second line, as in form 11, following.

38. The accompanying illustration shows a specimen superscription:

Return in 5 days to 540 Sewell St., Portland, Maine.	<p>MR. JOHN W. PLAYFAIR,</p> <p>President First National Bank,</p> <p>558 Jackson Boulevard,</p> <p>Chicago, Ill.</p>	<div style="border: 1px dashed black; width: 100px; height: 60px; margin: 0 auto;"> STAMP. </div>
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39. Points to be Observed.—The residence should be fully and clearly indicated in the address. Millions of pieces of mail matter are annually sent to the dead-letter office because of careless or illegible addresses. There are many post offices in the United States of America bearing the same name, but situated in different states. There is, for instance, a Clayton, New York, and a Clayton, New Jersey; Urbana, Champaign County, Ohio, and Urbana, Champaign County, Illinois. In such cases it is advisable to spell out the name of the state; in any case of doubt, an abbreviated form of the state's name should not be employed.

In addressing a letter to a small or obscure town or village, it is advisable to include the name of the county in the address. In the case of cities of national importance, as Boston, Chicago, Philadelphia, it is not really essential to write even the name of the state, though it is perhaps better

as a rule to include it. It is always better to put too much on the envelope than too little.

When the post office is a city, it is generally desirable, and where there are letter carriers employed, it is necessary, to give the number and the street; and when a city is large enough to employ carriers, it is hardly, if ever, necessary to give the county; as,

A— B—, Esq.,
128 Fifth Avenue,
New York,
N. Y.

In cases of this kind it is as unnecessary to write No. before the figures giving the number as it is in this case to write "City" after "New York."

In cities, it is sometimes desirable, in order to facilitate delivery, to give the part of the house; thus:

A— B—, Esq.,
Room 10,
470 Tremont St.,
Boston,
Mass.

Some streets contain the idea in the name, so that it is not necessary to add "St." to it; as,

A— B—, Esq.,
567 Broadway,
New York,
N. Y.

Here "way" conveys the idea of street.

It would be absurd to give all the points of an address at the same time, in such cases as this:

A— B—, Esq.,
Room 18,
28 Fulton St.,
New York,
New York Co.,
New York.

It is the custom in England to put a comma between the number of a street and the name of it; as, "46, Oxford St."

Theoretically, it would be better to reverse the order of the items in the address; that is, put the largest first and the smallest last. The item needed by the most distant post official—the postmaster that posts the letter—is the state, when in the states; and the country, when the letter is to go abroad. All that the postmaster looks for is the state; and succeeding officials will need the descending items. A rational address then would be:

California,
San Diego Co.,
San Diego,
John Smith.

When a letter is registered, the sender writes his full address across the left margin of the back of the envelope; and this is all that should ever be written on the back, and this in the case of registered letters only. To write “In haste,” “Deliver promptly,” “By courtesy,” and the like on an envelope letter—addressed apparently to whom it may concern, and it manifestly concerns nobody—is useless.

It was once thought necessary to write “To” before the name in the superscription of all letters, and many in England and a few in America do so still; but, except in very formal letters, it is superfluous, and for that very good reason falling into disuse. In all official correspondence, such as “To the Honorable the Secretary of State,” the prefix may properly be used.

40. The.—This demonstrative appears in such titles as “The Reverend,” “The Honorable,” etc.; although it is frequently read with the titles, even when not written with them. It belongs to both pre-titles and post-titles, as in the examples given.

41. Punctuation.—The items of the superscription are separated by commas, and since each item occupies a separate line, there should be a comma at the end of each line except the last. A title following the name should be separated from it by a comma, and two or more titles in

as a rule to
on the envelope

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the first of the
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writers to submit all
accept the proofs after
at the end of the first
the first of the first
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& Co
New York
N. Y.

Esq.,
Springfield,
Ill.

Wright,
Madison Ave.,
Dallas,
Texas.

Esq.,
Harrisburg,
Pa.

Esq.,
Bachelor at Law,
St. Louis,
Mo.

FORM 6.

The Honorable

WILLIAM CONNELL, M. C.,
Washington,
D. C.

A physician may be addressed:

FORM 7.

D—— E——, Esq., M.D.,
Clarksville,
Texas.

FORM 8.

DR. E—— F——,
New Hope,
Kentucky.

FORM 9.

The Reverend

DR. I. J. LANSING,
Scranton, Pa.

FORM 10.

The Right Reverend

ETHELBERT TALBOT, D.D., LL.D.,
Bishop of Central Pennsylvania,
South Bethlehem, Pa.

It is now generally conceded to be better form not to abbreviate the titles Honorable, Reverend, Right Reverend, and the like.

FORM 11.

MISS ETHEL ARMITAGE,
Care of S. E. Dobbs, Esq.,
Urbana,
Ohio.

THE POSTSCRIPT.

43. This term comes from the Latin *post scriptum*, "written after"; it is almost always abbreviated to P. S.

The ordinary and obvious use of the postscript is the addition to the letter of something thought of or occurring after the letter is written and signed. The postscript, however, may be, and often is, used for emphasis, especially in cases of diplomacy.

After writings falling under the head of postscripts may be indicated and arranged with these abbreviations:

P. S.—Postscript, as above.

P. P. S.—Paulo-postscript.

P. P. P. S.—Post-paulo-postscript; and this is quite far enough.

Perhaps a better designation would be:

P. S.—Postscript.

2d P. S.

3d P. S.

Try in general to say what you desire to say in the body of a letter, and avoid postscripts. The frequent use of postscripts lessens their power for any special service. Never write a message of affection, congratulation, or condolence as a postscript; for what might be a compliment or comfort in the body of a letter may prove an insult if written as a postscript.

THE NOTA BENE.

44. Sometimes at the close of a letter occurs the form "N. B." followed by a sentence or two, or even more, of some special significance. The words *nota bene* are Latin and mean "note well" or "note specially." The abbreviation is N. B.—the usual and almost universal form in use. Like the postscript, the nota bene follows the completed letter; that is, it comes below both the signature and the address, and may come before or after the postscript. It may rhetorically qualify either the letter or the postscript. Like the postscript, the nota bene has two leading uses. The first and obvious one is to call special attention to a point or a view of the matter that the writer thinks his correspondent may by inadvertence fail to appreciate or to give its due weight to. The other use is to conceal, at first blush at least, in its apparent emphasis, the real object of the letter; thus letting the real object work its way gradually—percolate, as it were—into the correspondent's mind. The real object, in such case, must be a matter alien to the subject of the

nota bene. This device, as in the case of the postscript, is one of diplomacy and belongs to the domain of rhetoric.

A nota bene may have a postscript, but it should never have a nota bene.

FOLDING.

45. Careless or neglectful folding gives the letter an appearance of disorder, which does not invite favorable consideration from the recipient. Take time to fold your letter neatly and carefully. See that it is adjusted to the envelope, and that no indication of an absence of neatness, order, or system be observable. The illustrations here given show the proper methods of folding for note sheets, letter paper, and legal cap.

To fold a note sheet, turn the bottom of the sheet upwards, making the crease at about one-third of the length of the sheet from the lower edge; then turn the top of the sheet downwards so that the top edge will nearly or quite reach the crease first made. By this method, the sheet is divided into three nearly equal sections as shown in Fig. 1, and the writing on the first page is concealed.



FIG. 1

The method of folding a letter sheet is shown in Fig. 2.

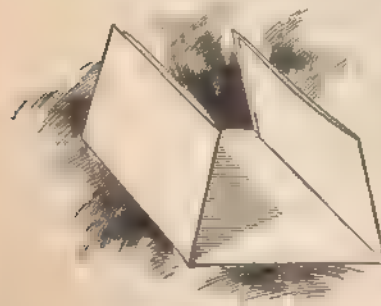


FIG. 2.

Turn the bottom of the sheet upwards so as to cover all but $\frac{1}{2}$ inch or less of the sheet and form the crease near the middle of the sheet. Next turn the right-hand edge of the paper to the left, making the crease about one-third of the width of the sheet from the right-hand edge, and fold the remainder of the sheet

from the left so that the left edge will come about to the crease on the right.

When an official envelope is used for a letter sheet, fold the bottom of the sheet upwards and the top downwards, thus dividing the sheet into three nearly equal sections. The writing will then be concealed.

The usual method of folding a sheet of legal cap is shown in Fig. 3. Turn up the bottom of the sheet so that the lower edge meets the top edge; then fold the upper half of the doubled sheet down over the lower half.



FIG. 3.

Small enclosures, like checks, receipts, etc., are laid on the

sheet and folded with it. If placed in the envelope separately, the enclosure is liable to be cut or torn when the letter is opened, or it may be overlooked when the letter is removed. Larger enclosures, as invoices and statements, are folded separately. Fig. 4 shows the proper method of folding a small enclosure in a letter sheet.



FIG. 4.

In folding letters, take care that the edges are even and that the folds are pressed down flat so as to give the letter a tidy appearance. A paper knife is to be preferred to the thumb or fingers in making the folds.

46. The Insertion of the Letter.—To insert the letter properly, take the envelope in the left hand with the opening to the right and the face down. Insert the folded letter with

the right hand, putting in the last folded edge first. If the letter is inserted in this manner, it can be removed from the envelope easily; if the folded edge is put in last, the corners are liable to catch when the letter is taken out.

The envelope should be opened by cutting or tearing open the top edge; then if the letter sheet has been properly inserted, it will, when removed, be right side up.

THE STAMP.

47. The stamp is placed in the upper right-hand corner of the envelope about $\frac{1}{8}$ or $\frac{1}{4}$ inch from the end and an equal distance from the upper edge. In affixing the stamp, take care that it is right side up and that its edges are parallel with the edges of the envelope. To affix the stamp carelessly is a mark of disrespect to your correspondent, the more so as it takes no more time and is just as easy to put the stamp in its proper place.

Be careful that the amount of postage is sufficient; the collection of extra postage at the delivery post office is an annoyance to both the postal clerk or carrier and the recipient of the letter.

THE RETURN DIRECTIONS.

48. To insure the return of a letter to the writer in case of non-delivery, the name or address of the writer should be written or printed in the upper left-hand corner or across the left margin of the envelope. The address of the sender on the envelope is tantamount to a request to return the letter if it fails of delivery in due time.

Business houses having extensive correspondence generally use *special-request* envelopes. These have printed on them the address of the sender with a request to return the letter in 5 or 10 days if not delivered. The stamped envelopes furnished by the post-office department have a printed special request with a blank for the address of the sender. If the return directions are omitted, the letter, if not delivered, must be sent to the dead-letter office.

We subjoin some forms of return directions that have fallen under our notice. A simple form is preferable to one more elaborate.

RETURN TO BOX 893
CINCINNATI

Return to SECRETARY OF STATE,
HELENA, Montana,
If not delivered within 10 days.

CITY OF NEW YORK
OFFICE OF THE CITY CLERK
CITY HALL

FROM
SUCCESS
COOPER UNION,
NEW YORK CITY.

RETURN IN TEN DAYS TO
THE INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS.
SCRANTON, PA.

TITLES: FORMS OF ADDRESS AND SALUTATION.

CLASSIFICATION OF TITLES.

49. Preliminary Remarks.—The proper use of the many titles employed in address and correspondence is a subject of sufficient importance to demand a somewhat full treatment in a separate section. In this section we endeavor to give the proper usage in regard to the titles of address ordinarily used in all kinds of correspondence, and the proper forms of address and salutation to be used in correspondence with those in official positions.

On account of the close relation existing between the United States and Great Britain, it has been deemed necessary to include the titles of rank used in the latter country, and the forms of address and salutation ordinarily used in correspondence with various officials and persons of rank.

50. According to their position, titles may be divided into two classes: **pre-titles**, such as Mr., Rev., Dr., etc., which precede the name; and **post-titles**, such as Esq., M.D., Jr., etc., which follow the name. There are some

pre-titles that on occasion must follow the name, generally in signatures and in descriptive mentions, but sometimes in addresses. Such are A—— B——, General U. S. A., or To the Reverend Doctor C——, Dean of D——. These, however, are not post-titles, but pre-titles in exceptional use.

According to their use, titles may be divided into the following classes:

1. **Titles of address**, embracing prefixed words or phrases attributing rank, office, or distinction, terms of respect, either in direct address, or in mentioning a person; as, Mister, Madam, the Honorable, his Grace, his Excellency.

2. **Titles of honor**, such as belong to possessors of dignities, inherent or acquired; they include both nobility and rank, titles of courtesy, and official titles significant of special appointments held. Titles of honor are again subdivided into: (*a*) hereditary, such as prince, duke, marquis, earl, viscount, and baron, the six British titles of nobility; (*b*) civil, such as President, Governor, Senator, Judge, Mayor; (*c*) naval and military, as Admiral, Commodore, General, Colonel, Captain; (*d*) ecclesiastical, as Archbishop, Bishop, Dean.

3. **Titles of distinction or merit** that are either (*a*) life and honorary titles, such as Lord, Knight, Lady, or (*b*) scholastic titles, which are degrees and honors conferred by scientific schools, colleges, universities, and other institutions of learning, or acquired in the practice of the learned professions. Regular degrees are conferred upon those completing a prescribed course and passing a certain examination; honorary degrees on persons that have become distinguished in public life or in literary and scientific studies.

TITLES OF ADDRESS.

51. Mister.—The contraction of this title is “Mr.,” and it rarely appears in any other form. It has always been a pre-title, and cannot be used apart from the name. When the occasion arises to use the appellative independently and (not

knowing the name) alone, we use Sir. Mr. is the most common of all titular appellatives applied to man. It is respectful, but it lacks distinction. It may be—and on occasion should be—used in almost every part of a letter; but the superscription and address are the important points, the use in both being exactly the same. The importance of Mr. in such use lies in its relations to and differences from "Esquire"; and these relations and differences are far more complex and confusing in the United States than in Great Britain, for the reason that the lines of distinction there are somewhat closely drawn, while here they are not. In this country Mr. has better standing than it has in the mother country, and the frequent ignorance of the social status of our correspondents render the safer title Mr. of more constant use, as an epistolary title at least. As a pre-title in the address of letters, it is fair to say, Mr. has far more respect shown it in America than in England. Few Americans have leisure to be vexed at so small a matter as that of being mistered, on letters or elsewhere. Still, Esquire is generally felt to be a higher title, and altogether a more desirable one where there is any feeling or room for feeling in the matter. The plural of Mr.—and of Esquire as well, as to titular use—is "Messrs.," a contraction of the French *Messieurs*, "gentlemen."

52. Gentleman.—This word means in its general application any man of intelligence not in some way degraded or in disgrace. In Great Britain the word has several specific meanings more limited and less flexible than in America. The British rule of the present day makes all men gentlemen that are not yeomen, tradesmen, artificers, or laborers; and each one of these defining words has several definitions.

53. Esquire.—This is the proper epistolary title of all untitled gentlemen, both in England and America. The contraction is "Esq.," formerly "Esqre."

In regard to Esq. and Mr., the title Esq. is somewhat more restricted in its application than is the title Mr. We can apply Mr. to any man, whatever his education or social position; but in general, we restrict the Esq. to men of some

intelligence and social standing in their community. In addressing a man of whom we know absolutely nothing except his sex, it is safest to use Mr. The title Esq. is always used in addressing in writing members of the legal profession just as "Dr." is used in addressing physicians.

54. Master. In this country youths of all classes should be addressed in writing by the pre-title "Master." The boy that we may accost as "Sam" or "Dick," or even as "Boy," is entitled to "Master" when we address him in writing.

55. Mistress is the pre-title of a married woman. It is almost always used in the abbreviated form "Mrs.," and is pronounced *missis*. The word corresponds very closely to "Mister," and was derived from Mister, after that word had grown out of Master; otherwise, the corresponding form of Master would have been Masteress or Mastress. The use of Mrs. with the family name is generally well understood. There is diversity of usage, however, as to coupling it with a husband's titles; as in "Mrs. General A—," "Mrs. Senator B—," and the like. This use is convenient, but questionable. The places, if any, where it may be used with propriety are few. The plural of Mistress, *Mesdames*, is taken from the French.

56. Mesdames. The permanent contraction of this word is "Mmes." It is the plural of the French *Madame*, and is used in English as the plural of "Mistress" (Mrs.); just as *Messieurs* (Messrs, a permanent contraction also), the plural of the French *Monsieur*, is used as the plural of the English "Mister" (Mr.).

Any number of spinsters associated in a business firm, in a committee, or in any other cooperative body, should be addressed in a letter by the pre-title of "Misses"; but if any one of them rejoices in the title of Mrs., then the pre-title of the body must be Mmes. The salutation, both oral and written, in any case—spinsters or not—should be "Ladies." That is to say, if Mrs. A— and another woman or other women, acting together in a firm or other collective capacity, are to be addressed, the pre-title must be Mmes.; and the salutation.

Ladies. In like manner, if Mr. A—— and another man or other men, acting as a firm or other collective body, are to be addressed, the pre-title should be Messrs., and the salutation, "Gentlemen" or "Sirs."

57. Miss is the pre-title of a girl or a spinster. Its use begins from infancy—almost as soon as the sex is distinguishable. In youth its masculine is "Master," and in adult age "Mister" (Mr.). It belongs to all ages and classes. It is a derivative by contraction of "Mistress," the feminine of "Mister." The title "Miss," in its adjectival use, is now a prefix—a pre-title—merely, and cannot be used as an independent appellative. In addressing a spinster, one must either know her given name or her surname; and with these one may say "Miss Mary" or "Miss Smith." It is as improper to address a spinster as "Miss" alone as it is to accost a man as "Mister" in the same way.

58. Senior.—This post-title should be written—as indeed should all titles—with a capital, whether abbreviated or not. The abbreviation is "Sr."; it was formerly "Sen.," a form that is still occasionally used. This title is placed immediately after the name and before all post-titles, such as "Esquire."

59. Junior.—This is the Latin *junior*, "younger"; it is always abbreviated, as a post-title in correspondence, to "Jr." or "Jun." Formerly Jun. was universal, but now Jr. is almost so. This title, like Senior, comes immediately after the name and is separated from it by a comma; as, "A—— B——, Jr., Esq." It never displaces nor supercedes any other title, but goes with all. It denotes the younger of two persons—usually father and son—that have the same name. The older is designated Senior. Junior should always begin with a capital.

60. Honorable.—This title is, in this country, entirely honorary or given by courtesy; and yet it is very frequently used. It is accorded to the Vice President of the United States; to Members of Congress; to Judges, from the Chief

Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States down to the lowest grade of law judges ; to Foreign Ministers and Envoys that have no title more distinguished, and to our own representatives abroad of the first and second grades ; to Cabinet Officers ; to State, Colonial, and Territorial Governors and Lieutenant Governors ; to Heads of Departments generally ; to State Senators and to State Senates collectively ; to Speakers of State Houses of Representatives and Houses of Delegates ; to Mayors ; and to most corporate bodies, with very little discrimination. The title is often given, by what seems to be a stretch of this very elastic courtesy, to Assistant Secretaries, Comptrollers of the Treasury, Auditors, Clerks of the Senate and of the House, etc. All civil officers below the ranks complimented with Honorable are addressed, in the absence of official titles, as "Esquire."

61. Right Honorable.—This title belongs to several offices in Great Britain, such as the Lord Chancellor, the Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, the Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, the Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer, and Members of the Queen's Privy Council.

62. Reverend.—This pre-title, often abbreviated "Rev.," designates in general a clergyman of any church, and is accorded to all priests below the rank of Very Reverend, those in Priests' or Deacons' orders, Pastors, Rectors, Preachers of all kinds, Vicars, Curates, Priors, Rabbis, Readers, etc. Abbesses, and other women at the head of religious houses, are entitled to this address.

63. Reverend Doctor.—This title belongs to a Doctor of Divinity, and is sometimes accorded as a personal courtesy to aged and learned divines that have not received the degree from any institution. Salutation: "Sir," "Reverend Sir," "Reverend Doctor," "Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Reverend Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To the

Reverend Dr. A—— B——”; or, though rarely, “To the Reverend A—— B——, D.D.”

64. Very Reverend is a title given to all church dignitaries below Patriarchs, Archbishops, Bishops, Abbots, and Prelates (except Archdeacons, who are venerable), down to the class entitled to Reverend. This title is by courtesy given also to Priors of Monasteries over which Abbots preside, Rectors and Superiors of Religious Houses, Presidents of Catholic Colleges, and other high institutions of learning.

65. Right Reverend.—This title belongs to a Bishop, a Mitered Abbot, a Monsignor, an Apostolic Prothonotary, and a Domestic Prelate; and is usually accorded to an Abbot and an Abbess. Most Reverend is higher, and Very Reverend is lower. The Bishops of the Methodist Episcopal Church, Mr. Westlake states, prefer “Reverend” to “Right Reverend” for themselves.

66. Lordship is a title given to Earls, Viscounts, Barons, Bishops; to the eldest sons of Earls; and, by virtue of their offices, to the Mayors of London, York, Belfast, and Dublin; to Judges while presiding in court; and to certain other high official personages, as Lord Chancellor, Lord of the Treasury, Lord Chief Justice of the Queen's Bench, Lord Chief Justice of the Common Pleas, Lord Chief Baron of the Exchequer, etc.

67. Grace.—A title given to Dukes and Archbishops as “his Grace the Duke of Portland”; “his Grace the Archbishop of York.”

68. Excellency.—A title sometimes given to the President of the United States, and generally to Governors of States and Colonies, American and English, also to Foreign Ministers and to American Ministers abroad, including all Plenipotentiaries and Ministers Resident. In Massachusetts and South Carolina, Excellency is, or has been, the legal title of the Governors.

TITLES OF HONOR.

HEREDITARY TITLES.

69. Emperor.—No English-speaking sovereign has this title or form of royalty except Queen Victoria, who is Empress of India; but this does not, we believe, in any way affect matters of correspondence. The title belongs to official and state papers, but not to letters.

70. King.—The salutation to this functionary is “Sir” or “Sire,” “May it please your Majesty,” “Most Gracious Sovereign.” The complimentary close: “I have the honor to be, Sire, your Majesty’s most faithful servant.” The address: “To the King’s Most Excellent (or, Gracious) Majesty.”

71. Queen.—The salutation due the Queen—there is but one Queen in the English-speaking world—is “Madam,” “May it please your Majesty,” or “Most Gracious Sovereign,” or something to that effect. The complimentary close of a letter to her may be, “I have the honor to be, with profound veneration, Madam, your Majesty’s most faithful servant.” The divisions into lines should be gracefully arranged, and every line should begin with a capital, whatever the word may be. The address: “To the Queen’s Most Excellent (or, Gracious) Majesty.” In conversation, one may say, “Your Majesty” and “Madam.” Relatively little formality hedges the Queen.

72. Prince of Wales.—Salutation: “Sir,” or “May it please your Royal Highness.” Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be, Sir, your Royal Highness’s most obedient servant.” Address: “To His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales.”

73. Duke.—Salutation: “My Lord Duke,” or “May it please your Grace.” Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be, my Lord Duke, your Grace’s most humble servant.” Address: “To His Grace the Duke of A——,”

or, when holding that rank, "To His Royal Highness the Duke of York."

The Duke is the highest order of nobility, next below the Prince of Wales. The order runs thus: Prince, Duke, Marquis, Earl, Viscount, Baron, Baronet, Knight.

74. Marquis.—Salutation: "My Lord Marquis." Superscription and address: "The Most Honorable the Marquis of Abercorn."

75. Earl.—Salutation: "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable the Earl of A——."

We communicate with the oldest sons of Dukes, Marquises, and Earls, in the same manner as with Earls, and with their wives, as with Countesses; with the younger sons of Earls, and with all the sons of Viscounts and Barons, as with untitled gentlemen; the address, however, being, "To the Honorable A—— B——." With the wives of these younger sons in the same manner, prefixing "Mrs." to the Christian name; thus, "To the Honorable Mrs. Henry A——."

76. Viscount.—Salutation: "My Lord." Superscription and address: "The Right Honorable the Viscount B——." The eldest sons of Viscounts and Barons have no distinctive title; they as well as their brothers and sisters being styled "Honorable Robert," "Honorable Mary," and so on.

77. Baron.—The Baron takes rank with a Viscount, and his epistolary salutation is "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Lordship's obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable the Lord A——."

78. Baronet.—Salutation: "Sir," "Dear Sir," "Dear Sir John," as the case may be. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir (or whatever corresponds to the salutation), your obedient servant." Address: "To Sir John

A——," etc. To this is added the title, usually abbreviated, "Bart." The wives of Baronets are addressed in the salutation and complimentary close as ladies ordinarily are; the address being "To Lady A—— B——," etc.

CIVIL TITLES, NOT HEREDITARY.

79. President of the United States.—The President of the United States is addressed, in epistolary salutation, as "Sir" and "Mr. President." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to subscribe myself, most respectfully, your obedient servant," or any other perfectly respectful formal closing. Address: "To His Excellency the President of the United States," or, with republican-democratic simplicity, "To the President, Executive Mansion, Washington, D. C." Mrs. Dahlgren suggests the former one.

There are, however, scores of forms in use. In the days of the first president it was customary to write always, "To His Excellency, George Washington, President of the United States." That degree of formality fell rapidly into disuse, however, and is very rarely seen on letters received at the White House today, and it has not been frequent for the last fifty years. In conversation, the Chief Magistrate is usually addressed as "Sir," or as "Mr. President," although one sometimes hears "Your Excellency."

80. Vice President.—The second officer of the United States ranks socially with the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court. Officially, he is addressed in epistolary salutation as "Sir," "Mr. Vice President," or the like. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant." Address: "To the Honorable the Vice President of the United States," "To the Honorable A—— B——, Vice President of the United States." The Chief Justice is addressed likewise: "To the Honorable the Chief Justice of the United States," "To the Honorable C—— D——, Chief Justice of the United States."

81. Governor of a State. — Salutation: "Sir," or "Your Excellency." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your (or, your Excellency's) obedient servant." Address: "To His Excellency the Governor of A —"; or, "To His Excellency B — C —, Governor of the State of D —"; or, simply, "To His Excellency the Governor." In the states of South Carolina and Massachusetts, "Excellency" has been, and we believe now is, the legal title of the Governor. In other states it is accorded by courtesy; but its use is almost universal.

82. Ambassador. — We should accord to all Foreign Ambassadors very scrupulous titular respect. They are entitled to it at home, and we should be liberal in giving it to them here. All are accorded the title "Excellency." The salutation may be, "Sir," "Your Excellency"; and, if the individual is a Lord at home, "My Lord," or such title as will fit his home rank. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your Excellency's obedient servant," etc. The address, dependent on home rank, of course "To the Marquis of A —, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary from H. M. the King of A —," or "To the Honorable A — B —, Minister Resident," etc.

By British usage the wives of Ambassadors are entitled to "Excellency" in both complimentary close and in address. Resident Ministers rank with Ambassadors and Plenipotentiaries. An Envoy ranks second and a Charge d'Affaires third. Ministers and Ambassadors are permanent functionaries.

Our own Ministers abroad are accorded our best terms of respect. Salutation: "Sir," or "Your Excellency." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant," or "I have the honor to be your Excellency's most obedient servant." Address: "To his Excellency A — B —, Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary at the Court of A —," etc.

83. An Envoy is a second-class Minister; the first class embracing Ambassadors, Plenipotentiaries, and Resident

Ministers. The Envoy is not resident, and his standing is derived from his other offices. In general, when he has no other official title, the Envoy should be addressed as Honorable.

84. A Charge d'Affaires is a third-class Minister. The titular appellation is Esquire.

85. Consul.—Salutation: "Sir." Complimentary close: "I beg to remain, Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To A— B—, Esq., Consul at C—," etc.

86. Cabinet Officer.—This official is to be addressed, in epistolary salutation, as "Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, respectfully your obedient servant"; or any form that conveys the same sense. Address: "To the Honorable the Secretary of State," etc. Or, with equal propriety, "To the Honorable A— B—, Secretary of State," and likewise with other Cabinet officers. In general, the address in such cases should be directed rather to the office than to the officer. Cases may even arise wherein the name of the officer is not known, and the address should be made complete without the name.

87. Attorney General of a State.—This officer should be addressed the same as the Attorney General of the United States, as, "The Honorable the Attorney General of Texas, Austin, Texas."

88. Senator or Representative in Congress.—Salutation: "Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To the Honorable A— B—, Senate Chamber, etc."; or, better, "Senator A— B—." A representative is addressed: "Honorable C— D—, United States Congress, Washington, D C.," and when absent from Washington, simply "Hon. C— D—," etc.

The President of the Senate should be addressed: "To the Honorable the President of the Senate of the United States," or "To the Honorable A— B—, President of the Senate of the United States." The Speaker of the House

is addressed "Sir," or "Mr. Speaker." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your most obedient servant," etc. Address: "To the Honorable the Speaker of the House of Representatives, Washington, D. C."

The Speaker of the Senate of Canada is addressed: "To the Honorable the Speaker of the Senate of Canada."

89. Legislator.—A State Senator is entitled, by universal consent, to the title of "Honorable"; as also is the Speaker of the House. The members of the House are also sometimes so addressed and spoken of, but the best usage accords them only "Esquire."

90. Judge.—The Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States is to be addressed as "Sir," "Mr. Chief Justice," "May it please your Honor"; and, on the bench, "May it please the Honorable Court." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Honor's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Honorable A—— B——, Chief Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States"; or, briefer and just as well, if not better, "To the Honorable the Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, Washington, D. C."

Associate Justices are entitled to the same salutation and complimentary close. Address: "To the Honorable A—— B——, Justice of the Supreme Court of the United States," etc.

The Chief Justices and Associate Justices of State Supreme Courts usually are addressed as above, the state being named in place of United States

All judges, below the grades above specified, are addressed as "Honorable," whether in the circuit, city, or county courts.

91. Lawyer.—In America, lawyers of all grades are accorded by courtesy the address title of "Esquire." The salutation is "Sir" or "Dear Sir," and the complimentary close corresponds. In England all Barristers of Law and Doctors of Law have a legal right to the title of Esquire,

both in superscription or address and in legal designation, and so have sheriffs of counties.

92. Solicitor.—The salutation is “Sir” or “Dear Sir”; the complimentary close, some form of “Respectfully yours.” The address is “Esquire,” a post-title.

93. Justice of the Peace.—Salutation: “Sir.” Complimentary close: “Respectfully, your obedient servant.” Superscription: “A—— B——, Esq.”

94. Mayor.—In America, a Mayor is addressed as “Honorable.” Salutation: “Sir,” “Your Honor,” etc. Complimentary close: “I have the honor to be (or, to remain) your Honor’s obedient servant.” Address: “To the Hon. A—— B——, Mayor of C——.”

95. Sheriff.—In America, the usual salutation of this officer is “Sir.” Complimentary close: “I beg to remain, respectfully yours;” or, “I have the honor to be,” etc. Address: “A—— B——, Esq., Sheriff of C—— County.”

96. Alderman. — Salutation: “Sir.” Complimentary close: “I beg to remain, your obedient servant,” or, “I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant.” Address: “To Mr. Alderman B——,” etc. As a body, Aldermen are “Honorable.”

97. President of a Board.—The President of a company, of a Board of Directors, or of Commissioners, or the like, should be addressed “To A—— B——, Esq., President of ——,” etc.

98. President of a College.—When he has no other office or degree, he may be addressed as “A—— B——, President of C—— College,” etc. Salutation: “Sir,” or “Dear Sir.” The complimentary close should correspond to the salutation, as, “I beg to remain, very respectfully yours,” etc.

NAVAL AND MILITARY TITLES.

99. Admiral.—The first officer in the United States Navy corresponds in rank to the General in the Army. He commands the fleets of the United States. Salutation: "Sir"; and this is used in every grade of office in the Navy. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To Admiral A—— B——, commanding the Fleets of the United States," etc.; "To Admiral A—— B——, commanding United States Navy," etc.; or, more simple and equally respectful, "To the Admiral of the Navy of the United States," etc. The following, from the Navy Regulations, bears upon the matter in hand: "Line officers in the Navy, down to and including Commander, will be addressed by their proper title; below the rank of Commander, either by the title of their grade or Mr. Officers of the Marine Corps above the rank of First Lieutenant will be addressed by their military title, brevet or lineal; of and below that rank, by their title of Mr. Officers not of the line will be addressed by their titles, or as Mr. or Dr., as the case may be."

Officers of the Navy take rank in the following order: Admiral, Vice Admiral, Rear Admiral, Commodore, Captain, Commander, Lieutenant Commander, Lieutenant, Master, Ensign.

100. General.—There are four grades of this office—General, Lieutenant General, Major General, and Brigadier General. They are all entitled to the same forms of address, except that the inside address should give the specific rank of the officer. All army officers above Lieutenant should be addressed by their official titles. The salutation of a General is "General"—never abbreviated; but civilians may, and often do, use "Sir," and it is entirely proper for them, though there is no necessity for other than military forms. Army officers must use military forms. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, General, your obedient servant." Superscription: "General A—— B——," etc., "General A—— B——, commanding Army of A——," etc. The

address should give the special rank; as, "Major General A— B—." When the officer is in command, as is usual in the army, that fact should appear in both the superscription and the address: "To General A— B—, commanding the Department of the Gulf," etc. If the officer commands a point, the address containing the name of the place, then the word "commanding" is sufficient; as, "To General A— B—, commanding, Fort Bridger, Utah," where the mention of the fort defines the command.

In the War Department in Washington the custom prevails, and it is a good one, of addressing the office rather than the officer; thus, "To the General of the Armies of the United States," etc.; "To the Honorable the Secretary of State," etc.

The word General comes into the titles of several other offices than those named above, such as Adjutant General, Quartermaster General, Surgeon General, Commissary General; it is also used in non-military titles, as Postmaster General, Attorney General, Surveyor General, Consul General, etc.

101. Colonel.—Salutation: "Colonel," or, from a civilian, "Sir." The "Colonel" should never be abbreviated in such use. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Colonel, your obedient servant." Address: "Colonel A— B—, commanding First Cavalry, U. S. Army," or "Colonel A— B—, U. S. A., Fort C—," etc.

102. Major.—Salutation: "Major" or "Sir." The title may be abbreviated sometimes in the address, but never in the salutation. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be (or, to remain), Major (or, Sir), your most obedient servant."

103. Captain.—Salutation: "Captain," or "Sir." The salutation in this and all similar addresses should never be abbreviated. It is an impertinence to write "Capt." for

Captain. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Captain (or, Sir, according to the salutation), your obedient servant." Address: "Captain A—— B——, Company A, Seventh Regiment, U. S. Cavalry."

104. Lieutenant.—Salutation: "Sir." Complimentary close. "I beg to remain yours respectfully," "Respectfully yours," etc. In regard to the address due a Lieutenant, usage varies very much. It was once a discourtesy to address him as "Lieutenant," and "Mr." prevailed. In England, "Esquire" is the legal title, and is usually accorded, giving the specific rank and command after the name and the Esquire. Usage, in America, so far as we may be said to have any, is in favor of giving "Lieutenant" usually abbreviated—as the pre-title, the post-title being, of course, omitted.

ECCLESIASTICAL TITLES.

105. Archbishop.—The Anglican Archbishop is addressed in salutation as "My Lord," "My Lord Archbishop," or "May it please your Grace." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, with the highest respect, My Lord Archbishop, your Grace's most obedient servant." Address: "To his Grace the Lord Archbishop of A——," or "To the Most Reverend Father in God, A——, Lord Archbishop of B——."

The Roman Catholic salutation for their Archbishop is "Most Reverend and Respected Sir"; or, from a friend or clergyman, "Most Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Most Reverend Sir (or, to correspond to the salutation), your obedient servant." Address: "To the Most Reverend Archbishop A——," or "To the Most Reverend A—— B——, Archbishop of C——."

106. Bishop.—The Anglican Bishop is to be addressed in salutation as "My Lord," "My Lord Bishop," "May

it please your Lordship," etc. Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, my Lord (following the salutation naturally), your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Reverend, the Lord Bishop of A——," etc.

In America, Bishops of Protestant Churches—except those of the Methodist Episcopal Church, who, we understand, prefer to be styled simply Reverend—are addressed as Right Reverend.

The Roman Catholic Bishop should be addressed as "Right Reverend Sir," or, less formally, "Right Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be (or, to remain), Right Reverend Sir, your obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Reverend Bishop A——," or "To the Right Reverend A—— B——, Bishop of C——."

107. Cardinal.—Salutation: "Most Eminent Sir," or "Most Eminent and Reverend Sir." Complimentary close: "Of your Eminence, the most obedient and humble servant," or "I have the honor to remain, Most Eminent Sir, with profound respect, your obedient and humble servant." A Catholic belonging to the Cardinal's diocese may, if he is an ecclesiastic, add "and subject" to the complimentary close; and if a layman, may add "and son." Address: "To His Eminence Cardinal A——." If the Cardinal is also an Archbishop, a Bishop, or a Patriarch, it is proper to add the official title to the above; as, "To His Eminence Cardinal A—— B——, Archbishop of A——." A Cardinal should not be addressed with such titles as D.D. or S.T.D., these being included in the greater title Cardinal.

108. Clergyman. In cases where the salutation differs—as it need hardly ever differ—from that of non-professional gentlemen, it is usually "Reverend Sir." This is very common in addressing the Clergyman—priest, parson, preacher, pastor, divine, minister of the gospel, rabbi, reader, and so on. The complimentary close corresponds to the salutation, as is usual in all cases of every degree and rank, and in the absence of all degrees and ranks. Address: "Reverend

A— B—," or "Reverend Mr. B—." In these cases, the abbreviated form, "Rev.," seems to be generally accepted. In conversation the Clergyman is usually accosted, as any other gentleman should be, as "Sir."

109. Dean.—In the Anglican Church the Dean is addressed, in salutation, as "My Lord," "May it please your Lordship." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Very Reverend Dean of A—," or "To the Reverend Doctor B—, Dean of C—."

110. Pope (*according to Prof. Westlake*).—Salutation: "Most Holy Father," or "Your Holiness." Complimentary close: "Prostrate at the feet of your Holiness, and begging the Apostolic Benediction, I protest myself now and at all times to be, of your Holiness, the most obedient son (or, daughter)." This, of course, for Catholics only. Address: "To our Most Holy Father, Pope A—," or "To His Holiness, Pope A—."

111. Prelate.—The Roman Prelates—Apostolic Prothonotaries and Domestic Prelates—are styled "Right Reverend," and are generally addressed as "Right Reverend Monsignor." Salutation: "Right Reverend Sir," "Right Reverend Monsignor"; or, informally, "Monsignor," or "Right Reverend and Dear Sir." Complimentary close: "Right Reverend Sir, your most obedient servant"; or, informally, "My Dear Monsignor, your friend and servant." Address: "To the Right Reverend Monsignor B—," etc.; "To the Right Reverend Monsignor A— B—, Prothonotary Apostolic," or "To the Right Reverend A— B—, Domestic Prelate of His Holiness."

112. Rabbi.—In the Jewish Church, Rabbi embraces all ordained ministers, and all are addressed as "Reverend." The Moreh Tsedek, or teacher of righteousness, the Moranu, or teacher, and the Moreh Moranu, or teacher of teachers, are the Hebrew titles of the clergy of that National Church. *Rabbi* in Hebrew means "my master."

TITLES OF DISTINCTION.**LIFE AND HONORARY TITLES.**

113. Lord.—In Great Britain, a peer of the realm, especially a Baron, as distinguished from the higher orders of nobility.—*Worcester.* The word peer is limited to the members of the upper House of Parliament, and to Scotch and Irish noblemen of corresponding rank, qualified, on election, to sit in the upper House.—*Smart.* The title of Lord is extended by courtesy to the sons of Dukes and Marquises. It is also given to one that has the fee of a manor, and consequently the homage of his tenants; but, if not of noble birth, he is not addressed as a Lord.

A recent writer makes this point. "The title of Lord has not necessarily anything to do with peerage. All peers are lords, but there are many lords that are not peers. The King's Chancellor, his Treasurer, his Chamberlain, his High Admiral, the President of his Privy Council, certain of the high Judges, all English Judges when actually on the bench, Scottish Judges at all times, Lieutenants of Counties, the Lieutenant of Ireland and his deputy, the Mayors of London and York, the Provosts of several Scottish cities, the Rectors of Scottish Universities, the younger sons of Dukes and Marquises—all these are Lords by some rule, by law, or by courtesy, many of them without being peers; and, when they are peers, without any reference to their peerage."

114. Lord Chancellor.—Salutation: "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, with the highest respect, my Lord, your Lordship's most obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable Lord A—— Lord High Chancellor."

115. Lord Mayor.—Salutation: "My Lord." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, my Lord, your Lordship's obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable A—— B——, Lord Mayor of C——."

116. Knight.—Salutation, complimentary close, and superscription, the same as those of a Baronet. The wives of Knights, also, the same as those of Baronets.

117. Lady.—In Great Britain this title "is prefixed to the name of any woman whose husband is of rank not lower than Knight, or whose father was a nobleman not lower than an Earl." Among English-speaking people generally the word Lady has two well known meanings or uses—the one above stated, and that formerly given the word gentlewoman, the correlative of gentleman. When gentleman came into use, the feminine of it was gentlewoman, but that feminine was gradually replaced with Lady, as we have the word now in this country.

118. Princess.—Salutation: "Madam," or "May it please your Royal Highness." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Madam, your most obedient and faithful servant"; or, after "Madam," one may insert, in place of "your," "your Royal Highness's" Address: "To Her Royal Highness the Princess A——."

119. Duchess.—Salutation: "May it please your Grace," "Your Grace," "Madam." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be, Madam, your Grace's most faithful, obedient servant." Address: "To Her Grace the Duchess of A——."

120. Countess.—Salutation: "Madam," "My Lady." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Ladyship's most faithful and obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable the Countess of A——."

121. Baroness. Salutation: "My Lady." Complimentary close: "I have the honor to be your Ladyship's obedient servant." Address: "To the Right Honorable the Lady (or, the Baroness) A——."

SCHOLASTIC TITLES.

122. Degrees.—In the following list are given the most common of the many degrees conferred by universities and colleges. Where the degree has more than one abbreviation, only the one most frequently used is given:

Bachelor of Divinity.....B.D.	Bachelor of Philosophy.....Ph.B.
Doctor of Divinity.....D.D.	Doctor of Philosophy.....Ph.D.
Bachelor of Laws.....LL.B.	Doctor of Science.....Sc.D.
Doctor of Civil Law.....D.C.L.	Bachelor of Science..B.S., or S.B.
Doctor of Laws.....LL.D.	Master of Science.....M.S.
Doctor of Medicine.....M.D.	Mechanical Engineer.....M.E.
Graduate in Pharmacy.....Ph.G.	Mining Engineer.....E.M.
Doctor of Dental Surgery..D.D.S.	Civil Engineer.....C.E.
Bachelor of Arts....B.A., or A.B.	Electrical Engineer.....E.E.
Master of Arts.....M.A., or A.M.	

Scholastic degrees are always abbreviated.

The bachelor's degrees, B. A., B. S., etc., are conferred upon students at the completion of the prescribed college course. The master's and doctor's degrees, M. A., Ph. D., etc., are conferred after one or more years of graduate study. In general, the same applies to the engineering degrees, C. E., M. E., etc.

Little importance is attached to degrees lower than M. A. or M. D., and they should not be used in address or superscription. In formal letters, the higher degrees, as D. D., LL. D., Ph. D., etc., may be used. It is customary in business correspondence with engineers to append the C. E., M. E., or E. E. to the name of an engineer entitled to it. These titles, and also the title M. D., are professional as well as scholastic and may properly be used in an address, superscription, or signature. It is in bad taste, however, to append a purely scholastic title, as M. A. or LL. D., to one's signature. The title M. D. belongs of right only to regular graduates of a medical college in good standing. A lady entitled to this degree may be addressed as "Margaret Dawson, M. D.," or "Dr. Margaret Dawson."

123. Professor.—This title properly applies to one elected by the proper authorities to a chair or professorship

in an institution of learning legally qualified to confer degrees. It is by extension applied also to any salaried graduate actually employed in teaching, and by courtesy is given to scholars and scientists that have become noted in special branches of knowledge, and to persons that have distinguished themselves as educators. The assumption of the title "professor" by balloonists, barbers, dancing masters, and others for the purpose of acquiring importance in the eyes of the ignorant, should be vigorously discouraged by intelligent people. This title—and all others as well—should be used with discretion, and should be applied only to those that have an indisputable right to it.

PETITIONS.

124. Communications or petitions to an assembled body may be directed to the president of the body or to the body itself. The following are the forms of salutation and address used in such cases:

United States Senate.—Salutation: "Honorable Sirs," or "May it please your Honorable Body (or, the Honorable Senate)." Address: "To the Honorable the Senate of the United States in Congress assembled "

House of Representatives.—Salutation: "Honorable Sirs," "May it please your Honorable Body." Address: "To the Honorable the House of Representatives of the United States in Congress assembled."

House of Lords. Petitions to the House of Lords are addressed, "To the Right Honorable the Lords, spiritual and temporal, of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled." The petition commences, "My Lords," or "May it please your Lordships."

House of Commons.—Petitions to the House of Commons are thus addressed: "To the Honorable the Commons of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland in Parliament assembled." The petition commences, "May it please your Honorable House."

Canadian Parliament.—The Senate of Canada is thus addressed: "To the Honorable the Senate of Canada in Parliament assembled." Petitions to the House of Commons of Canada are addressed, "To the Honorable the Commons of Canada in Parliament assembled." The petition commences, "May it please your Honorable House."

Legislature.—Address: "To the Honorable the Senate and House of Representatives of the State (or, Commonwealth) of . ." Salutation: "The undersigned respectfully represent that —," or "The petition of A— B— (or, of the undersigned) hereby sheweth " Complimentary close, when there are several signers: "And your petitioners, as in duty bound, will ever pray," etc., followed by the signatures.

Court.—A petition to a Civil Court should be addressed, "Your Honors," or "May it please your Honors," or "May it please the Honorable Court." Address: "To the Honorable the Judges of A— Court."

Board of Education.—A petition or memorial to a Board, say of Education, may begin with "Gentlemen," or, when it is a large or important corporation, "May it please your Honorable Body." Complimentary close: "All of which is respectfully submitted." Address: "To the President (or Chairman, as the case may be) and Members of the Board of Education of B—," etc. All other communications may be addressed to the President or Chairman officially; in some instances—as in imparting information—it is better taste to address the Secretary of the Board. Always ascertain definitely whether the head of the Board is a President or a Chairman.

ABBREVIATIONS AND CONTRACTIONS.

125. Abbreviations, quotations, and contractions should be used sparingly in writing letters. Formal letters, indeed, should contain no abbreviations except those of titles of address and scholastic degrees. In business letters and familiar social letters, abbreviations may be used to some extent, but they

should be those that are well understood and in common use.

In the heading, address, or superscription, it is customary and proper to abbreviate the name of the state, and also to use the abbreviations "St." for Street, "Ave." for Avenue, "Co." for County, etc. It is not permissible to use the Arabic figures for the names of streets, nor is it considered proper to use the abbreviations, N., E., S., and W., for North, East, etc., in designating streets; thus, instead of "514 N. 7th St." write 514 North Seventh St. "Cross-Roads" should never be written "X Roads." The name of a city should not be abbreviated; as, "Phil." for Philadelphia, "N. O." for New Orleans, "Balt." for Baltimore, "Cin." for Cincinnati, or the like. In the address of letters such forms savor of impertinence. Worse than this is the abbreviation of less familiar proper names. If one writes "Rock. Co., Virginia," the distributing clerk has to pause long enough to recall the fact that there is no Rock county in Virginia—although there is in other states—and to guess that the word "Rock." is for Rockingham. All this takes time and tries patience, and is so much unnecessary labor added to an overworked official. So, also, of "Ash." for Ashland, Ashley, Ashmore, Ashtabula, and so on; "Green." for Greenbrier, Greenville, Greenwood, Greenup, etc.; and "Hill." for Hillsborough; and so on to the end of the chapter. All such abbreviations are samples of impertinence and ignorance combined.

Abbreviations by syncope are almost as faulty as the foregoing; such as, "Wmsburgh" for Williamsburgh, "Jastown" for Jamestown, "Jnotown" for Johntown, "Washton" for Washington, and so on. When two abbreviations identical in form fall together—as in Berkly St, St. Louis—it is better to spell the word Street out in full. The word "St." for Saint, although in a proper name, is so invariably employed that no confusion can arise from its use. Such words as San, Mount, New, should generally be written out; such as North, South, East, West, Upper, Lower, Point, Port, Union, and Bay should *always* be

written out, except in the names of states or very well known places

There are a few abbreviations by syncope in personal names that have become tolerable by long use. Of this class are Chas., Jas., Thos., Wm., and some others. The correct form of writing these is the one here given; that is, with no punctuation except the abbreviation period at the end.

It is important, in view of the punctuation, to keep in mind the distinction, very frequently overlooked, between an abbreviated name and a nickname. Thus, the abbreviation of Thomas is "Thos.," while the most common nickname is "Tom," the former having the period of abbreviation and the latter not. From Joseph, in like manner, we have "Jos." and "Joe," abbreviation and nickname respectively; and in this case there is a sort of compromise in "Jo." Most of our familiar names have both abbreviations and nicknames, and sometimes a plurality of both; for example, William has "Wm." and "Will.," abbreviations; with "Bill" and "Willie" for nicknames. James has "Jas.," with "Jemmy," "Jimmy," and "Jim." John has "Jno.," with "Johnny" and "Jack." Edward has "Edw." and "Ed.," with "Ned." Charles has "Chas.," with "Charley."

One common but objectionable abbreviation is the symbol *&* for *and*. In general this abbreviation is permissible in a firm name; as, Messrs. John Hill & Sons.

The contractions, *can't*, *don't*, *isn't*, etc., used in familiar conversation, may perhaps be used in familiar letters; it is however a safe rule to avoid all such contractions in all forms of written discourse.

The abbreviations that are likely to be required in writing are given in the following classified list. It is not intended, of course, that the student shall commit to memory **all** the abbreviations given; he should, however, scan the list carefully and note those most frequently used in correspondence; and he should obtain a good general idea of the various classes so that he may intelligently use the list for reference.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO BUSINESS.

According to value (<i>ad valorem</i>)	Collectorcoll.
ad val.	Commission, Commerce; Com-
Accountacct.	mitteecom.
Account current acct. cur.	Company; CountyCo.
Account sales acct sales	Consignedcons d
Additionaladd.	Consignmentcons't
Advertisementad., advt.	Consolidatedconsol.
Agentagt.	Correspondentcorresp.
All correct (oll korrekt) O.K.	Credit, CreditorCr.
Amountamt.	Day bookD.B.
Assortedass'd or as'd	Depositdep.
Averageav	Discountdisct.
Balancebal	Ditto (the same).do.
Balesbls	Dividenddiv.
Bankbk	DebtorDr.
Bank book; Bill bookB.B.	Draftdft.
Barrelbbl.	Eachea
Bill of exchangeb. e.	Errors and omissions excepted
Bill of ladingb. l.	E. & O.E.
Bills payableb. p.	Errors exceptedE.E.
Bills receivableb. rec	Exchange, ExchequerExch.
Bondbd.	Export, Exporter, Expense, exp.
Boughtbot.	First classA1
Boxesbxs.	Foot or feetft.
Broughtbro't	Free on boardf. o b.
Bundlebdl	Gallongal.
Bushelbu, or bush	Grossgr. or gro.
By the hundredper cent.	Hogsheadhhd.
By the yearper an.	Hundredweightcwt.
Cartagectg	I owe youI.O.U.
Cash (or collect) on delivery.	Inch or inchesin.
C.O.D.	Insuranceins.
Cashiercash.	Interestint.
Caskscks.	Inventoryinv't.
Centsc. or cts.	Invoiceinv.
Chargeschgs	Invoice bookI.B.
Chartered accountant, Chief	Journaljour.
accountantC A.	Journal day bookJ.D.B.
Chestschts.	Journal folioJ.F.
Collateralcollat	KilogramKilo., Kg.

Manifest	Mfst.	Pieces.....	pes. or ps.
Memorandum	Mem.	Please exchange	P.X.
Memorandum book.....	Mem.B.	Pound or pounds.....	lb.
Merchandise.....	mdse.	Premium	Prem.
Mortgage	Mtg.	Quart	qt.
Number, Numbers	No., Nos.	Quarter.....	qr.
Ounce.....	oz.	Received	recd.
Package	pkg.	Returned.....	ret'd.
Paid	pd.	Sales book.....	S.B.
Pay on delivery.....	P.O. D.	Shipment.....	shipt.
Payment.....	pay't	Treasurer.....	Treas.
Peck.....	pk	Weight	wt.
Piece.....	pce. or pc.	Yard or yards	yd.

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO LEGAL AND CIVIL AFFAIRS.

Administrator.....	adm., admr	Financial Secretary.....	Fin.Sec.
Advocate.....	Adv.	Governor.....	Gov., Govr.
Against (<i>versus</i>).....	v., vs.	His (or, Her) Britannic Majesty.	H. B. M.
Alderman	Ald.	His (or, Her) Majesty.....	H. M.
And others (<i>et alii</i>).....	et al	His (or, Her) Majesty's Customs.	H. M. C.
Attorney	Atty.	House of Representatives.....	H. R.
Attorney General.....	Atty.Gen.	Incorporated.....	incor.
Chancellor.....	Chanc.	Internal Revenue	Int. Rev.
Chief Justice.....	C. J., Ch. J.	Judge Advocate.....	J. A.
Civil	Civ.	Judge of Probate.....	J. Prob.
Civil Service.....	C. S.	Justice of the Peace.....	J. P., Jus. P.
Clerk.....	clk	King's Bench.....	K. B.
Clerk of Privy Council.....	C P C	King's Counsel	K. C.
Commissioner.....	Com., Comr.	Legal	Leg.
Common Pleas.....	C. P.	Legislature	Leg., Legis.
Congress.....	Cong	Member of Congress; Master of Ceremonies, Master Commandant	M. C.
Congressional Record	Cong. Rec	Member of Parliament.....	M. P.
Corresponding Secretary	Cor Sec	Member of Provincial Parliament.	M. P. P.
Defendant.....	dft., deft.	Notary Public.....	N. P.
Democrat; Democratic.....	Dem.	Parliament; Parliamentary.....	Parl.
Department, Deponent	Dept., Dep.	Plaintiff.	plf., plff., pltf.
Deputy.....	Dep	Post Office.....	P. O.
District Court.....	D. C.	Postal Note	P. N.
Envoy Extraordinary and Minister Plenipotentiary.	E. E. & M P	Postmaster	P. M.
Executive Committee	Exec Com		
Executor.....	Exec, Exr		

Privy Councilor.....P.C.	SecretarySec.
Public Documents.....Pub.Doc.	Senate; Senator.....Sen.
Queen Victoria (<i>Victoria Regina</i>).	Solicitor.....Sol.
V.R.	Solicitor General.....Sol.Gen.
Queen's Bench.....Q.B.	SuperintendentSupt.
Queen's Counsel.....Q.C.	Superior Court; Supreme Court.
Register; Registrar.....Reg.	Sup.Ct.
Republican; Representative; Re-	United States District Court.
port.....Rep.	U.S.D.Ct.
Revised Statutes.....Rev.Stat.	United States Senate.....U.S.S.

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO TIME.

AfternoonP.M.	June.....Jun.
April.....Apr.	(June and July are rarely abbreviated.)
August.....Aug.	Last month (<i>ultimo</i>).....ult.
Before Christ (<i>ante Christum</i>).	March.....Mar., Mch.
A.C., B.C.	Minute.....min.
CenturyCen.	Monday.....Mon.
Christmas.....Xmas.	Month.....mo. (pl., mos.)
Day; Days.....d., ds.	New styleN.S.
December.....Dec.	Next month (<i>proximo</i>)prox.
February.....Feb.	Noon (<i>meridian</i>).....M.
Forenoon.....A.M.	November.....Nov.
FridayFri.	October.....Oct.
Hour.....h., hr.	Old styleO.S.
Hours.....hrs.	SaturdaySat.
In the meantime (<i>ad interim</i>).	Secondsec.
ad. int.	SeptemberSept.
In the year of our Lord, or In the	Sunday.....Sun.
Christian Era(<i>anno Domini</i>).A. D.	This month (<i>instant</i>).....inst.
In the year of the world (<i>anno</i>	Thursday.....Thurs.
<i>mundi</i>).....A.M.	Tuesday.....Tues.
January.....Jan.	Wednesday.....Wed.
July.....Jul.	Year; years.....yr., yrs.

GEOGRAPHICAL ABBREVIATIONS.

Africa; African.....Afr.	ArizonaAriz.
Alabama.....Ala.	ArkansasArk.
Alaska.....Alas.	Australia; Australian....Austral.
America; American.Am. or Amer.	Austria; Austrian.
Argentine Republic.....Arg.Rep.	Aus., Aust., Austr.

Avenue.....Ave.
 Bahamas.....Bah.
 Baltimore.....Balt., Balto.
 Barbados.....Barb.
 Belgium; Belgian.....Belg.
 British America.....Br.Am., B.A.
 British Columbia.....B.C.
 Borough.....bor. or Bor.
 Britain; British.....Brit.
 British India.....B.I.
 California.....Cal.
 Cambridge.....Cam.
 Canada.....Can.
 Canterbury (*Cantuar*). Cantuar.
 Cape Breton.....C.B.
 Cape of Good Hope.....C.G.H.
 Central America.....Cen.Am.
 Chicago.....Chi.
 Colorado.....Colo.
 Better than Col., in order to distinguish it easily from Cal.
 Connecticut.....Conn.
 Should never be abbreviated Ct., for the reason that it might, in hasty handwriting, be confounded with Vt.
 County.....Co.
 Court House.....C.H.
 Dakota.....Dak.
 Delaware.....Del.
 District.....Dist.
 District of Columbia.....D.C.
 Dominion.....Dom.
 Dublin.....Dub., Dubl.
 Ecuador.....Ecu.
 England; English.....Eng.
 Europe.....Eur.
 Florida.....Fla.
 France; French.....Fr.
 Georgia.....Ga.
 Germany; German.....Ger.
 Great Britain.
 G.B., Gt.Br., Gt.Brit.
 Greece; Greek.....Gr.
 Hawaiian Islands.....H.I.
 Honduras.....Hond.
 Idaho.....Ida.
 Illinois.....Ill.

Indian Territory.....Ind.T.
 Indiana.....Ind.
 Indo-European... Indo-Eur.
 Iowa.....Ia., Io.
 Ireland.....Ir., Ire.
 Island.....Is., Isl.
 Italian.....Ital.
 Italy.....It.
 Japan.....Jap.
 Kansas.....Kan., Kans., Kas.
 Kentucky.....Ky.
 Better than Ken., for the reason that Ken. might be mistaken for Kan.
 Lake.....L.
 London.....Lon., Lond.
 Louisiana.....La., Lou.
 Maine.....Me.
 Manitoba.....Manit.
 Maryland.....Md.
 Massachusetts.....Mass.
 Mexico.....Mex.
 Michigan.....Mich.
 Minnesota.....Minn.
 Mississippi.....Miss.
 Missouri.....Mo.
 This abbreviation is exceptional, and almost absurd. The most common abbreviation of a state is the first part of the word; as, Ala., Conn., Miss., Mass., etc. Another is the first and last letters; as, La., Pa., Me., Ga., etc. But Mo. is a third and unique form; but long usage has made it intelligible and hence it is best to keep it. Mis. would be confounded with Miss.; and Mi. with Me.
 Montana.....Mont.
 Mountain.....Mt.(pl., Mts.)
 Nebraska.....Nebr.
 Best form, as Neb. might be mistaken for Nev., Nevada.
 Netherlands.....Neth.
 Nevada.....Nev.
 New Brunswick.....N.B.
 New England.....N.E., N.Eng.
 Newfoundland.....N.F.
 New Hampshire.....N.H.
 New Jersey.....N.J.
 These initials are too much like N.Y., N.H., N.C., and so on, to make it at all times safe to use them for the state. Better in cases where space is limited, to write it "N. Jersey."

New Mexico.....	N. Mex.	Sandwich Islands.....	S. I.
New South Wales.....	N. S. W.	Scotland.....	Scot.
New York.....	N. Y.	South Africa.....	S. A.
New Zealand.....	N. Z., N. Zeal.	South America.....	S. A., S. Am.
North America.....	N. A.	South Carolina.....	S. C.
North Carolina.....	N. C.	South Dakota.....	S. Dak.
North Dakota.....	N. Dak.	Spain.....	Sp.
Northwest Territory.....	N. W. T.	Sweden.....	Sw.
Norway.....	Norw.	Switzerland.....	Swit., Switz.
Nova Scotia.....	N. S.	Tennessee.....	Tenn.
Ohio.....	O.	Territory.....	Ter., Terr.
Ontario.....	Ont.	Texas.....	Tex.
Oregon.....	Or., Ore., Oreg.	Township.....	tp.
Oxford (<i>Oxonía</i>).....	Oxon.	United States of America.....	U. S. A.
Pennsylvania.....	Pa.	Utah.....	U.
This is better than Penn. for the reason that the latter is too much like Tenn.		Venezuela.....	Venez.
Philadelphia.....	Phil., Phila.	Vermont.....	Vt.
Province of Quebec.....	P. Q.	Village.....	vil. or Vil.
Quebec.....	Q., Que.	Washington.....	Wash.
Railroad.....	R. R.	West Indies.....	W. I.
Rhode Island.....	R. I.	West Virginia.....	W. Va.
River.....	R.	Wisconsin.....	Wis.
Russia, Russian.....	Russ	Wyoming.....	Wyo.
		York (<i>Eboracum</i>).....	Ebor.

ABBREVIATIONS RELATING TO CHURCH AFFAIRS.

Catholic.....	Cath.	Methodist.....	Meth.
Church.....	Ch.	Methodist Episcopal.....	M. E.
Clergyman.....	Cl., clerg.	New Testament.....	N. T.
Congregational.....	Cong.	Old Testament.....	O. T.
Deacon.....	Dea.	Presbyterian.....	Presb.
Defender of the Faith (<i>Fidei Defensor</i>).....	Fid. Def.	Protestant.....	Prot.
<i>Deo Optimo Maximo</i> (to God, the best, the greatest).....	D. O. M.	Reformation.....	Ref.
Diocese.....	dio., dioc.	Reformed Church in America.....	R. C. A.
Ecclesiastes.....	Eccl., Eccles.	Reverend; Revelation.....	Rev.
English translation.....	E. T.	Revised Version.....	Rev. Ver.
Episcopal.....	Epis.	Roman Catholic.....	R. C., Rom. Cath.
Evangelical.....	Evang.	Trinity.....	Trin.
God willing (<i>Deo volente</i>).....	D. V.	Unitarian.....	Unit.
Independent Methodist.....	Ind. Meth.	United Brethren.....	U. B.
		United Presbyterian.....	U. P.
		Universalist.....	Univ.

ABBREVIATIONS OF ORDERS AND SOCIETIES.

Academy of Science	A S	Astronomical Society of the Pacific	A.S.P.
American Association for the Advancement of Science.	A A.A.S.	Benevolent and Protective Order of Elks.	B P O Elks
American Association for the Promotion of Science.	A.A.P.S.	British and Foreign Bible Society.	B. & F.B.S.
American and Foreign Bible Society	A F B S	British Association.	B.A.
American Board Commissioners for Foreign Missions	A.B.C.F.M.	British Women's Temperance Association	B W T.A.
American Geographical and Statistical Society.	A.G.S.S.	Brotherhood of Locomotive Engineers.	B.L.E.
American Institute	A I	Chautauqua Literary and Scientific Circle.	C.L.S.C.
American Institute of Architecture	A.I.A.	Church Missionary Society.	C.M.S.
American Institute of Mining Engineering	A.I.M.E.	Engineer Volunteers	E V.
American Missionary Association.	A.M.A.	Grand Army of the Republic.	G.A.R.
American Order of Stationary Engineers.	A.O.S.E.	Improved Order of Red Men.	Imp'd O R M.
American Peace Society	A.P.S.	Independent Order of Foresters.	I.O.F.
American Protestant Association.	A.P.A.	Independent Order of Good Templars.	I.O.G.T.
American Railway Union.	A.R.U.	Independent Order of Odd Fellows.	I.O.O.F.
American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals.	A.S.P.C.A.	Independent Order of Sons of Malta	I.O.S.M.
American Society of Civil Engineers and Architects.	A.S.C.E.A.	Institute of Civil Engineers.	Inst C.E.
American Society of Mechanical Engineers.	A.S.M.E.	Institute of Mechanical Engineers.	Inst.M.E.
American Statistical Association.	A.S.A.	Institute of Naval Architects.	Inst N A.
American Unitarian Association.	A.U.A.	International Typographical Union	I T.U.
Ancient Free and Accepted Masons	A.F.A.M., A.F. & A.M.	Knight of the Garter.	K.G.
Ancient Order of Foresters	A O F.	Knight of the Legion of Honor (France).	K.L.H.
Ancient Order of Hibernians.	A O H.	Knight of Malta.	K.M.
Ancient Order of United Workmen	A.O.U.W.	Knight of St. Patrick.	K P.
Associated Brotherhood of Iron and Steel Workers.	A.B.I.S.W.	Knights of Honor	K of H
		Knights of Labor.	K. of L.
		Knights of Pythias	K of P.
		Knights Templars	K T.
		Mexican War Veterans	M W V.

National Academy of Design.	Society for the Prevention of Cru-
N.A.D.	elty to Animals..... S.P.C.A.
National Academy of Sciences.	Society for the Prevention of Cru-
N.A.S.	elty to Children..... S.P.C.C.
National Association of Stationary	Sons of Temperance..... S. of T.
Engineers..... N.A.S.E.	Woman's Christian Temperance
Order of United American Me-	Union..... W.C.T.U.
chanics..... O.U.A.M.	Women's Christian Association.
Order of United Americans, O. U. A.	W.C.A.
Royal Academy of Music, R.A.M.	Young Men's Christian Associa-
Royal Arch Chapter..... R.A.C.	tion..... Y.M.C.A.
Royal College of Physicians, R.C.P.	Young Men's Christian Union.
Royal College of Surgeons, R.C.S.	Y.M.C.U.
Royal Historical, Humane, or Hor-	Young Women's Christian Asso-
cultural Society..... R.H.S.	ciation..... Y.W.C.A.
Society for the Prevention of	Young Women's Christian Tem-
Crime..... S.P.C.	perance Union..... Y.W.C.T.U.

ABBREVIATIONS OF TITLES.

Abbott; Abbess..... Abb.	Earl..... E.
Acting Assistant Quartermaster	Ensign..... Ens.
General..... A.A.Q.M.G.	Esquire (formerly Esqre.).... Esq.
Adjutant General..... A.G.	Excellency..... Exc.
In our army the staff officer ranks as	General..... Gen.
a Brigadier General when he holds the	His Excellency His Eminence.
grade	
Admiral..... Adm.	Honorable..... Hon.
Archbishop..... Abp.	Knight..... Kt.
Assistant Adjutant General	Lieutenant..... Lieut.
A.A.G.	Lieutenant Colonel..... Lt. Col.
Assistant Quartermaster A.Q.M.	Lieutenant General..... Lt. Gen.
Assistant Quartermaster General	Major..... Maj.
A.Q.M.G.	Major General..... Maj. Gen.
Baronet..... Bart.	Master or Master..... Mr.
Bishop..... Bp.	Meslames..... Mmes.
Brigadier General..... Brig. Gen.	My dear (settlement)..... Messrs.
Captain..... Capt.	Midshipman..... Mid.
Cardinal..... Card.	Mistress or Miss..... Mrs.
Chancellor..... Chanc.	Most Worshipful, Most Worthy.
Colonel..... Col.	M. W.
Commandant..... Comdt.	President..... Pres.
Commander..... Com.	Professor..... Prof.
Commodore..... Com.	
Deputy Adjutant General..D.A.G.	
Deputy Lieutenant..... D.L.	

Postmaster General.....Qm.G.	Surgeon General.....Surg.Gen.
Admiral.....R.A.	Venerable.....Ven.
Very Reverend.....V.R., V.Rev.	Vicar Apostolic.....V.A.
Professor.....Reg.Prof.	Vice Admiral.....V.Adm.
Reverend.....Rev.	Vice Chairman; Vice Chancellor.
Honorable.....Rt.Hon.	V.C.
Reverend.....Rt.Rev.	Vice General.....Vice Gen.
Worshipful.	Vice President.....Vice Pres.
R.W., Rt.Wpful.	Viscount.....Vis., Visct.

ABBREVIATIONS OF DEGREES, FELLOWSHIPS, ETC.

(For other abbreviations of scholastic degrees, see Art. 122.)

Associate of the Royal Academy.	Fellow of the Historical Society
A.R.A.	(<i>Historiæ Societatis Socius</i>).
Bachelor of Civil Law.....B.C.L.	H.S.S.
Bachelor of Literature.B.L., B.Lit.	Fellow of the Philological Society.
Bachelor of Music.B.Mus., Mus. Bac.	F.P.S.
Bachelor of Oratory.....B.O.	Fellow of the Society of Arts, Fel-
Doctor of Natural Philosophy.	low of the Antiquarian Society.
Dr.Nat.Phil.	F.A.S.
Doctor of Natural Science.	Master of Laws.....LL.M.
Dr.Nat.Sc.	Master of Philosophy.....Ph.M.
Doctor of Sacred Theology..S.T.D.	Member of Legislative Council.
Doctor of Veterinary Science.	M.L.C.
D.V.S.	Member of Royal Academy of
Dynamical Engineer.....D.E.	Science.....M.R.A.S.
Fellow of Royal Society (<i>Regiæ</i>	Member of the Royal Institution.
<i>Societatis Socius</i>).F.R.S., R.S.S.	M.R.I.
Fellow of the American Academy	Member of the Royal Irish Acad-
(<i>Academiæ Americanæ Socius</i>).	emy.....M.R.I.A.
A.A.S.	Member of the Royal Society of
Fellow of the Entomological So-	Literature.....M.R.S.L.
cietiy.....F.E.S.	Member of the Statistical Society.
Fellow of the Geological Society.	M.S.S.
F.G.S.	Topographical Engineer.....T.E.

UNCLASSIFIED ABBREVIATIONS.

Abridged.....abr.	Anonymous.....Anon.
Aide-de-Camp.....A.D.C.	Answer.....a. or ans.
And others; And so forth (<i>et cet-</i>	Answer, if you please (<i>repondez</i>
<i>era</i>).....etc., &c.	<i>s'il vous plait</i>).....R.S.V.P.

Appendix	app.	Longitude.....	long
Approximate.....	approx.	Manufactured.....	Mfd.
Architecture; Architect.....	Arch.	Manufacturers.....	Mfrs.
Article.....	art.	Manufacturing.....	Mfg.
Boards (bookbinding).....	bds.	Manuscript; Manuscripts,	
Book.....	bk.	MS., MSS.	
Brevet; Breveited.....	Brev.	Military.....	Mil.
Brother.....	Bro.	Mutual.....	Mut.
The plural is Bros., not Bro's.		Namely (<i>videlicet</i>).....	viz.
Building.....	bldg.	National.....	Nat.
Capital letter.....	cap.	<i>Nota bene</i>	N.B.
Centigrade; Central.....	° C.	— e; Pages.....	p., pp.
Chapter.....		osophy.....	Phil.
Coadjutor.....		ation.....	pop.
College.....		Office Order.....	P.O.O.
Compare.....		Is, shillings, and pence.	
Confederate States of Ar		£, s., and d.	
U.S.A.		<i>Tempore</i> (for the time) pro tem.	
Cyclopedia.....	Cyc.	Query.....	qy.
Dead-Letter Office.....	D.L.O.	Question.....	qu., ques.
Degree.....	Deg.	<i>Quod erat demonstrandum</i> (which	
Dictionary.....	dict.	was to be demonstrated).....	q.e.d.
<i>Dramatis persone</i> , (the persons		Railroad.....	R.R.
of the drama).....	Dram.Pers.	Railway.....	Ry.
Dynamics.....	dyn., dynam.	Recipe.....	Rec.
Edition.....	ed.	Regiment.....	Reg.
Editor.....	Ed.	Remark.....	Rem.
Engineer; Engineering.....	eng.	Review.....	Rev.
Example.....	Ex.	<i>Scilicet</i> (namely; to wit).....	scil.
Exception.....	ex.	Section.....	sec.
Fahrenheit.....	Fah., Fahr.	Solution.....	sol.
<i>Fecit</i> (he did it).....	fec.	Supplement.....	Supp.
Figure.....	fig.	That is (<i>id est</i>).....	i. e.
For example (<i>exempli gratia</i>).....	e.g.	The same (<i>idem</i>).....	id.
General Order.....	G.O.	Transpose.....	tr.
Handkerchief.....	hdkf.	United States Army.....	U.S.A.
History, Historical.....	hist.	United States Mail or Marines.	
<i>In transitu</i> (in the passage).		U.S.M.	
in trans		United States Military Academy.	
<i>In ignoto</i> (unknown).....	incog.	U.S.M.A.	
Introduction.....	Intro.	United States Naval Academy.	
It does not follow (<i>non sequitur</i>).		U.S.N.A.	
non seq		United States Navy.....	U.S.N.
Latitude.....	lat.	United States Steamship.....	U.S.S.
Library.....	Lib.	Volume.....	vol.

SIGNS AND CHARACTERS.

The following signs and characters are in daily use:

To or at.....	of	Dollars.....	\$
Account.....	^a / _c	Number.....	#
Bill of lading.....	^b / _c	Means "pounds," if written after a figure, as 10 £	
Bill rendered.....	^b / _R	Check mark.....	✓
Bill of sale.....	^b / _s	Also radical sign	
Cents.....	^c / _s	Ditto. (The same as above).....	"
Care of.....	^c / _{to}	Degrees.....	°
Days after date.....	^d / _t	Primes, Minutes; Feet.....	'
Days after sight.....	^d / _s	Seconds, Inches.....	"
Free on board.....	^f / _b	Also used for ditto marks.	
Joint account.....	^j / _A	One and one fourth.....	1 ¹ / ₄
Letter of credit.....	^L / _c	One and one half.....	1 ¹ / ₂
Letters of marque.....	^L / _M	One and three fourths.....	1 ³ / ₄
Pounds sterling.....	£	Addition (plus).....	+
On account of custom.....	^o / _c	Subtraction (minus).....	-
Out of courtesy.....	^o / _c	Multiplication (by or into).....	x
Per cent.....	%	Division (divided by).....	÷
Per.....	^p / _d	Equals (equality).....	=

POSTAL INFORMATION.

CLASSES OF MAIL MATTER: RATES OF POSTAGE.

126. First-Class Matter. On matter that is wholly in writing, sealed or unsealed, printed commercial papers filled out in writing, having the nature of a personal correspondence, or being the expression of a money value, such as notes, drafts, receipts, executed deeds, and insurance policies, manuscripts for publication when unaccompanied by proof sheets, reproductions by the copygraph and similar processes, which are in the nature of personal correspondence, or imitating written matter, and all packages the contents of which cannot be ascertained without destroying the wrapper, the postage is 2 cents for each ounce, or for each fraction thereof. On local or drop letters at offices where there is no free delivery by carrier, 1 cent. Weight of packages not limited. Postal cards, 1 cent.

127. Second-Class Matter.—This class includes all newspapers, periodicals, or matter exclusively in print and regularly issued at stated periods from a known office of publication or news agency. Postage, 1 cent a pound or fraction thereof. Weight of packages not limited. The only writings or prints that may be enclosed with or on such matter are: Name and address of publishers, and of party addressed; index or expiration figures; printed title and office of publication; corrections of typographical errors; marks to call attention to any passages; the words "sample copy" or "marked copy"; and bills, receipts, and subscription orders, which, however, must contain no other information than the name, place of publication, subscription price, and subscription due; the number of copies contained in package may be noted.

Transient newspapers and periodicals that have been entered as second-class matter, 1 cent for 4 ounces, or fraction thereof.

128. Third-Class Matter.—Mail matter of the third class embraces books (printed and blank), circulars, and other matter wholly in print, proof sheets and corrected proof sheets and manuscript copy accompanying the same, handbills, posters, chromolithographs, engravings, heliotypes, lithographs, photographic and stereoscopic views, with title written or printed thereon, printed blanks, printed cards. Postage, 1 cent for each 2 ounces or fractional part thereof.

Third-class matter must admit of easy inspection, otherwise it will be charged letter rates on delivery. It must be fully prepaid, or it will not be forwarded.

The limit of weight is 4 pounds, except single books in separate packages, on which the weight is not limited. It is entitled, like matter of the other classes, to special delivery when special delivery stamps are affixed in addition to the regular postage.

Upon matter of the third class, or upon the wrapper or envelope enclosing the same, or the tag or label attached thereto, the sender may write his own name, occupation,

and residence or business address, preceded by the word *from*, and may make marks other than by written or printed words to call attention to any word or passage in the text, and make correct any typographical errors. There may be placed upon the blank leaves or cover of any book, or printed matter of the third class, a simple manuscript dedication or inscription not of the nature of a personal correspondence. Upon the wrapper or envelope of third-class matter, or the tag or label attached thereto, may be printed any matter mailable as third class, but there must be left on the address side a space sufficient for the legible address and necessary stamps.

129. Fourth-Class Matter.—Mailable matter of the fourth class embraces blank cards, cardboard, and other flexible material, flexible patterns, letter envelopes and letter paper, merchandise, models, ornamented paper, sample cards, samples of ores, metals, minerals, drawings, plans, designs, original paintings in oil or water colors, and any other matter not included in the first, second, or third class, and which is not in its form or nature liable to destroy, deface, or otherwise damage the contents of the mail bag, or harm the person of any one engaged in the postal service; or matter excluded by sections 3,893 and 3,894 Revised Statutes, to wit, obscene matter and matter concerning lotteries. Postage rate thereon, 1 cent for each ounce or fractional part thereof.

Other articles of the fourth class, which, unless properly secured, might destroy, deface, or otherwise damage the contents of the mail bag, or harm the person of any one engaged in the postal service, may be transmitted in the mails when they conform to the following conditions: (1) They must be placed in a bag, box, or removable envelope made of paper, cloth, or parchment; (2) such bag, box, or envelope must again be placed in a box or tube made of metal or some hard wood, with sliding clasp or screw lid; (3) in case of articles liable to break, the inside box, bag, or envelope must be surrounded by sawdust, cotton, or spongy

substance; (4) in case of sharp-pointed instruments, the points must be capped or encased; and when they have blades, such blades must be bound with wire; (5) the whole must be capable of easy inspection. Seeds, or other articles not prohibited, which are liable from their form or nature to loss or damage unless specially protected, may be put up in sealed envelopes, provided such envelopes are made of material sufficiently transparent to show the contents clearly without opening.

Upon any package of matter of the fourth class the sender may write or print his own name and address, preceded by the word *from*, and there may also be written or printed the number and names of the articles enclosed; and the sender thereof may write or print upon or attach to any such articles, by tag or label, a mark, number, name, or letter, for purpose of identification, and any matter not in the nature of personal correspondence may be printed on the wrapper or label, or be enclosed within.

Fourth class matter may be registered and must be fully prepaid.

130. Registration.—All kinds of postal matter may be registered at the rate of 8 cents for each package in addition to the regular rates of postage, to be fully prepaid by stamps. Each package must bear the name and address of the sender, and a receipt will be returned from the person to whom addressed. Mail matter can be registered at all post offices in the United States.

The Post-Office Department or its revenue is not by law liable for the loss of any registered or other mail matter. Congress, at a recent session, passed an act authorizing the Postmaster General to formulate a system by which an indemnity—not to exceed \$10 for any one registered piece—shall be paid for the loss of first-class registered matter.

131. All matter concerning lotteries, gift concerts, or schemes devised to defraud the public, or for the purpose of obtaining money under false pretenses, is denied transmission by mails.

132. The franking privilege was abolished July 1, 1873, but the following mail matter may be sent free by legislative saving clauses; viz:

1. All public documents printed by order of Congress, the Congressional Record and speeches contained therein, franked by Members of Congress, or by the Secretary of the Senate, or by the Clerk of the House.

2. Seeds transmitted by the Secretary of Agriculture, or by any Member of Congress, procured from that Department.

3. All periodicals sent to the subscribers within the county where printed, except when sent to free delivery offices.

4. Letters and packages relating exclusively to the business of the Government of the United States, mailed only by officers of the same, publications required to be mailed to the Librarian of Congress by the copyright law, and letters and parcels mailed by the Smithsonian Institution. All these must be covered by specially printed "penalty" envelopes or labels.

5. The Vice President, members and members-elect and delegates and delegates-elect to Congress may frank any mail matter, not over 1 ounce in weight, upon official or departmental business.

6. All communications to government officers and to members of Congress must be prepaid by stamps.

MONEY ORDERS.

133. Money in sums not exceeding \$100 can be sent with safety through the principal Post Offices of the United States, by buying Post-Office Money Orders. The rates are as follows:

For domestic money orders: For sums not exceeding \$2.50, 3 cents; over \$2.50 and not exceeding \$5, 5 cents; over \$5 and not exceeding \$10, 8 cents; over \$10 and not exceeding \$20, 10 cents; over \$20 and not exceeding \$30, 12 cents; over \$30 and not exceeding \$40, 15 cents; over \$40 and not

exceeding \$50, 18 cents; over \$50 and not exceeding \$60, 20 cents; over \$60 and not exceeding \$75, 25 cents; over \$75 and not exceeding \$100, 30 cents.

For foreign money orders: For sums not exceeding \$10, 10 cents; over \$10 and not exceeding \$20, 20 cents; over \$20 and not exceeding \$30, 30 cents; over \$30 and not exceeding \$40, 40 cents; over \$40 and not exceeding \$50, 50 cents; \$50 to \$60, 60 cents; \$60 to \$70, 70 cents; \$70 to \$80, 80 cents; \$80 to \$90, 90 cents; \$90 to \$100, \$1.

SPECIAL DELIVERY.

134. Affixing a special-delivery stamp of the value of 10 cents to any letter or package insures its immediate delivery by messenger on reaching destination. This now applies to all Post Offices in the United States.

VALENTINES, ETC.

135. Valentines and unframed Christmas and Easter cards, and other cards of a similar character, passing between friends in small quantities, as tokens of esteem, are transmissible in mails despatched to countries of the Universal Postal Union (except Canada and Mexico, to which United States domestic postage rates apply), at the rate and under the conditions applicable to "printed matter" in Postal Union mails, notwithstanding they are composed partly of silk or satin, and are hand-painted and of elaborate design and finish. But such cards regularly framed, whether with wood, metal, or other material usually used for picture frames, are not entitled to transmission as "printed matter," and should not be admitted to Postal Union mails at less than the letter rate of postage fully prepaid; nor should articles intended for use (such as cushions, etc.), which bear an Easter or Christmas greeting, but cannot be considered in any sense "cards," be treated as "printed matter" in said mails.

RATES OF FOREIGN POSTAGE.

136. The rates of postage to all foreign countries and colonies (except Canada and Mexico) are as follows:

Letters, per 15 grams ($\frac{1}{2}$ ounce).....	5 cents
Postal cards, each.....	2 cents
Newspapers and other printed matter, per 2 ounces.	1 cent
Commercial papers (such as legal and insurance papers, deeds, bills of lading, invoices, manuscript for publication, etc.)—	

Packets not in excess of 10 ounces.....	5 cents
---	---------

Packets in excess of 10 ounces, for each	
--	--

2 ounces or fraction thereof.....	1 cent
-----------------------------------	--------

Samples of merchandise—

Packets not in excess of 4 ounces.....	2 cents
--	---------

Packets in excess of 4 ounces, for each	
---	--

2 ounces or fraction thereof.....	1 cent
-----------------------------------	--------

Registration fee on letters or other articles.....	8 cents
--	---------

Ordinary letters for countries of the Postal Union (except Canada and Mexico) will be forwarded, whether any postage is prepaid on them or not. All other mailable matter must be prepaid at least partially. Mail matter for Hawaii, Cuba, Porto Rico, and to the United States possessions in the Philippines, if addressed to persons in the service of the United States should be prepaid at Domestic Rates, and at Postal Union Rates if addressed to other persons.

137. The following are the rates of postage to Canada:

Letters, per ounce, prepayment compulsory.....	2 cents
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Postal cards, each.....	1 cent
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Newspapers, per 4 ounces.....	1 cent
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Merchandise, not exceeding 4 pounds (samples, 1 cent	
--	--

per 2 ounces), per ounce.....	1 cent
-------------------------------	--------

Commercial papers, same as to other Postal Union countries.	
---	--

Registration fee.....	8 cents
-----------------------	---------

Any article of correspondence may be registered. Packages of merchandise are subject to the regulations of either

country to prevent violations of the revenue laws; must not be closed against inspection, and must be so wrapped and enclosed as to be easily examined. Samples must not exceed $8\frac{3}{4}$ ounces in weight. No sealed packages other than letters in their usual and ordinary form may be sent by mail to Canada.

138. The rates of postage to Mexico are:

Letters, newspapers, and printed matter are now carried between the United States and Mexico at same rates as in the United States. Samples are 1 cent for 2 ounces; limit of weight, $8\frac{3}{4}$ ounces. Merchandise other than samples may only be sent by Parcels Post. No sealed packages other than letters in their usual and ordinary form may be sent by mail to Mexico, nor any package over 4 pounds 6 ounces in weight.

Merchandise cannot be sent by mail to foreign countries, except as samples as above, or when paid at the rate for letters; except that a Parcels Post is in operation between the United States and Jamaica, Barbados, the Bahamas, British Honduras, Mexico, Hawaii, Leeward Islands, Republic of Colombia, Salvador, Costa Rica, Danish West Indies (St. Thomas, St. Croix, and St. John), British Guiana, Windward Islands, and Newfoundland. Merchandise to these countries, 12 cents for each pound or fraction thereof. Limit of weight, 11 pounds. Limit of size to Colombia, Costa Rica, and Mexico, 2 ft. \times 4 ft. To other countries named, 6 feet for greatest length and girth combined.

Packages of canceled or uncanceled postage stamps addressed to foreign countries (except when sent by Parcels Post) are subject to postage at letter rates.

SUGGESTIONS TO THE PUBLIC.

(From the United States Official Postal Guide.)

139. Mail all letters, etc. as early as practicable, especially when sent in large numbers, as is frequently the case with newspapers and circulars.

All mail matter at large post offices is necessarily handled in great haste and should, therefore, in all cases be so *plainly* addressed as to leave no room for doubt and no excuse for error on the part of postal employees. Names of states should be written in full (or their abbreviations should be very distinctly written) in order to prevent errors that arise from the similarity of such abbreviations as Cal., Col.; Pa., Va., Vt.; Me., Mo., Md.; Ida., Ind.; N. H., N. M., N. Y., N. J., N. C., D. C.; Miss., Minn., Mass.; Nev., Neb.; Penn., Tenn.; etc., when hastily or carelessly written. This is especially necessary in addressing mail matter to places the names of which are borne by several post offices in different states.

Avoid as far as possible the use of envelopes made of flimsy paper, especially where more than one sheet of paper, or any other article than paper, is enclosed. Being often handled, and subjected to pressure in the mail bags, such envelopes not infrequently split open, giving cause of complaint.

Never send money or any other article of value through the mail except either by means of a money order or in a registered letter. Any person who sends money or jewelry in an unregistered letter not only runs a risk of losing his property, but exposes to temptation every one through whose hands his letter passes, and may be the means of ultimately bringing some clerk or letter carrier to ruin.

See that every letter or package bears the full name and post-office address of the writer, in order to secure the return of the letter, if the person to whom it is directed cannot be found. A much larger portion of the undelivered letters could be returned if the names and addresses of the senders were always fully and plainly written or printed inside or on the envelopes. Persons that have large correspondence find it most convenient to use "special-request envelopes"; but those who only mail an occasional letter can avoid much trouble by writing a request to "return if not delivered," etc. on the envelope.

When dropping a letter, newspaper, etc. into a street

country to prevent
be closed against
enclosed as to be
8 $\frac{3}{4}$ ounces in weight
in their usual
Canada.

138. The
Letters, new
between the U
the United States
of weight, 8 $\frac{3}{4}$
only be sent
than letters in
mail to Mexico
weight.

Merchandise
except as sent
letters; except
United States
Honduras,
Colombia,
Thomas, &
ward Islands
countries.
Limit of
Costa Rica
named, 6
Package
addressed
Post) are

139. M
cially when sent
with newspaper

should be sent
to the
in firm
package
care
preserved
the
is
The postage
packages
characters
letter by express
is enclosed in a
lawful to enclose
wholly to the
of the Post-Office
person informa-
her, or to disclose
by sojourning in a
operation should be
if not addressed
designated place of

States copyright
ais, or mailed here.

LETTER WRITING.

(PART 2.)

COMPOSITION OF LETTERS.

INVENTION AND EXPRESSION.

1. In any composition, letter, sermon, essay, etc., two things are required: (1) Finding something to say; this is *invention*. (2) Saying it; this is *expression*.

2. **Invention.**—Invention as applied to a written composition signifies the thinking out, so to speak, of the matter that is to be written. Usually, invention is the more difficult of the two processes, but in letter writing, as opposed to other forms of composition, invention is comparatively simple and easy. Before beginning a letter, one usually knows quite well what he intends to say; the material is at hand, and the chief labor consists in proper expression. Nevertheless, a certain amount of attention should be paid to the orderly arrangement of the material, even in the most informal social letter. Before beginning a letter think over what you want to say, so that it will not be necessary to add one or more postscripts after you have written the signature. The essential points having been decided on, they should be presented in a free and natural manner. In the case of important letters it is best to note on paper the various points to be considered, and arrange them in the most logical order. It is a good plan to first make a rough draft of such

a letter, revise and rearrange the topics, and condense the sentences until you are satisfied that the letter cannot be improved; then make a fair copy.

3. Expression, in letter writing, embraces the following subjects: (1) *spelling*; (2) *diction*, or use of words; (3) *construction of sentences*; (4) *punctuation*; (5) *construction of paragraphs*.

SPELLING.

4. To properly express one's self, it is necessary to master *English spelling*, which is the art of expressing an English word by its proper letters. What are these proper letters? Usage and the authority of recognized dictionaries must determine. Misspelling is one of the common faults of English letter writing. It is surprising, indeed, to find so many persons that speak correctly enough, whose writing is atrociously bad. We see men that lay claim to an ordinary good education, and elected perhaps on the strength of that claim to some public office, unable to express themselves in writing without shocking those that read their productions. Such men often inflict injury on the very communities they officially represent or rather misrepresent.

Still, correct spelling is easily enough acquired. All that is required of the student is attention to what he reads. Let him read with care, application, and assiduity, and he will soon become a master of the art of spelling. Let him first strive to acquire the correct spelling of the smaller words of the language, and he will find himself making rapid and steady advancement. A well spelled letter from a working man is indicative of diligence, and diligence is one of those very qualities most highly prized by employers of labor.

By way of counsel to any one desirous of becoming an accurate speller we would say:

1. Read well written books and periodicals.
2. Copy from well written books and periodicals.
3. Consult a dictionary of recognized authority as frequently as possible.

DICTION.

5. Diction deals with the choice and use of words. We say that a person's diction is good when he uses only words that are reputable and that convey the exact meaning he intends them to convey; his diction is faulty if he uses to excess words of questionable standing, foreign words and phrases, or slang, or if he uses words in a sense not ordinarily understood.

In letter writing the rules of diction are by no means as rigid as in most other forms of written composition. In general, we use about the same words in writing to a person that we would in conversation with him. Technical or colloquial words understood by the recipient may be freely used in a letter, but would not be permissible in an essay or article to be read by people unacquainted with their meaning. It is not to be inferred, however, that a careless use of words is permissible in letter writing; while the fact that a social letter is more or less informal and free and easy permits the diction to be also informal, it is just as necessary in letter writing to use words that properly convey the meaning intended as it is in the most formal composition.

Diction may be considered under three heads; viz., *purity*, *propriety*, and *precision*.

6. **Purity** consists in the use of words that are sanctioned by good usage and are familiar to the great body of educated people—words in current and reputable use.

We give briefly a few points to be observed in the use of words and phrases.

Obsolete words, that is, words that were once in current use but have fallen into disuse, should be avoided. Some words are still used in poetry and historical novels, but are obsolete in conversation or letter writing. Such are: *ere* for *before*, *vale* for *valley*, *sooth* for *true*, *twain* for *two*, etc.

New words are to be used cautiously. Many new words are coined to meet the requirements of scientific research; these are usually received readily, soon acquire good standing, and may be used without hesitation. Such are:

telephone, acetylene, X-ray. Many new words are coined by newspapers or by eccentric and irresponsible writers to fill a real or fancied blank in the language or in an effort to say things smartly or humorously. Some of these words, e. g., *boycott, mugwump, and bulldoze*, survive and are finally accepted; others either die or remain of doubtful reputation. It is well in all forms of composition to refrain from using new words of this character until they become well established.

Slang is always undignified if not positively vulgar, and should be rigidly excluded. The excessive and indiscriminate use of such adjectives as "splendid," "stunning," "immense," and "just lovely" is a practice closely related to the use of slang.

Foreign words and phrases are to be avoided, except words like *employe, quorum, nom de plume*, etc., which through long usage have become as familiar as English words.

7. Propriety consists in the use of words in their generally understood sense. In letter writing, propriety is of even more importance than purity. We may use words of a technical or provincial nature, foreign words, or even slang, and though the letter may be undignified and faulty from a literary standpoint, it may be perfectly intelligible to the writer. On the other hand, if the words we use, even though they satisfy all the requirements of purity, do not convey the ideas we wish to express, we run the risk of being misunderstood.

To illustrate what is meant by propriety, we give a few examples of the proper and improper use of words.

Creditable means worthy of approbation, reputable, thus we say, "The boy's work is creditable." Frequently, however, this word is incorrectly used for *credible*, which means worthy of belief, e. g., "A creditable witness testified, etc." This is an example of a mistake in the use of words similar in form or derived from the same source; other examples are *purpose* for *propose*, *avocation* for *vocation*, *contemptuous* for *contemptible*, *healthy* for *healthful*, *affect* for *effect*; *exceptionable* for *exceptional*, *continuous* for *continual*; *emigrant* for *immigrant*; *revenge* for *avenge*.

Administer is incorrectly used in the following: "The teacher administered a box on the ear." Blows are *dealt*; governments, oaths, and state affairs are *administered*.

Expect is often used incorrectly for *suspect* or *suppose*.

Balance is used incorrectly for *remainder*; thus, "The balance of the party returned home."

8. Precision consists in the choice and use of words or expressions that convey neither more nor less than the exact meaning intended.

In the English language there are frequently several words that express very nearly the same meaning; seldom, however, are two words exactly synonymous, and care must be exercised to select the one that conveys just what is meant. To attain precision in the use of such words, one should study standard works on synonyms; for example, Crabb's "Synonymes" or Roget's "Thesaurus."

The following are examples of words that differ more or less in meaning but are often used synonymously:

Less, Fewer.—*Less* is applied to quantity or things measured; *fewer*, to things numbered. "Lee had *fewer* (not *less*) men than Grant."

Apt, Likely, Liable.—*Apt* and *liable* are frequently used where *likely* is the proper word. *Apt* implies capacity or fitness for; thus, "The boy is an *apt* pupil." *Liable* means exposed to something unpleasant. "One is *liable* to take cold." "The city is *liable* for damages." It is incorrect to say, "Where is he *apt* to be this evening?" or "When are you *liable* to go down town?"

Remember, Recollect.—To remember means to retain in the mind; to recollect means to recall by an effort something that has been forgotten.

Character, Reputation.—Character is inherent in a person; reputation means the estimation in which a person is held by others. A person with a really bad character may have a good reputation.

9. Incorrect Expressions.—As an aid to the attainment of good diction the following list of expressions is presented for the consideration of the student. It contains many errors that are made even by careful and painstaking letter writers.

CORRECT.

The foregoing statement is borne out by facts.

I was more than a mile from Scranton.

This feat was beyond his strength.

What course will you take?

Congress decided upon active measures.

His language provokes me.

He was easily irritated.

The news spread over the country.

He asserts that Dewey is the greatest of naval captains.

Come to see us before you go.

His arrival was hourly expected.

He desired to go to Europe.

I value your friendship.

I shall likely go tomorrow.

He was not there that I know of.

James is suffering from a severe cold.

My child feels very bad.

I very much wish to see him.

The remainder of my father's property is unsold.

I beg leave to acknowledge your letter.

There was a perfect understanding between the two statesmen

(*Between* is used when two things, parts, or persons are mentioned; *among* in reference to more than two.)

Aunt Jane served us with a plentiful repast.

John was determined to go.

I have no doubt that he will pay

I regard him as a great statesman.

President McKinley has convoked Congress.

INCORRECT.

The *above* statement is borne out by facts.

I was *above* a mile from Scranton.

This feat was *above* his strength.

What course will you *adopt*?

Congress *adopted* active measures.

His language *aggravates* me.

He was easily *aggravated*.

The news spread *all over* the country.

He *allows* that Dewey is the greatest of naval captains.

Come *and* see us before you go.

His arrival was hourly *anticipated*.

He was *anxious* to go to Europe.

I *appreciate* your friendship.

I am *apt* to go tomorrow.

He was not there *as* I know of.

James is suffering from a *bad* cold.

My child feels very *badly*.

I wish to see him very *badly*.

The *balance* of my father's property is unsold.

I *beg* to acknowledge your letter.

There was a perfect understanding *among* the two statesmen.

Aunt Jane served us with a *bountiful* repast.

John was *bound* to go.

I have no doubt *but that* he will pay

I *consider* him a great statesman.

President McKinley has *convened* Congress.

CORRECT.

Two boys ran down the street.

Despite our persuasions he sold his farm.

As soon as he came to town he rented a house.

I forget the date of his conviction.

He bestowed a generous gift upon Mercy Hospital.

My friend is entitled to entire confidence.

I suppose you had difficulty in coming.

Our friends suffered rough treatment at the hands of the enemy.

He showed me great kindness.

Those who could, fled from the pestilence.

My brother was afraid of being left.

I would rather not go to New York tomorrow.

Peaches are a wholesome fruit.

He told me how he would reach Vancouver.

I noticed several persons at the station.

John lay down to rest.

James went to lie down.

He taught me to read.

Let William go.

Dr. White delivered a long sermon.

I noticed fewer than ten persons in the room.

Do as your friend does.

I like a good breakfast.

Herbert goes to Dunmore almost every day.

INCORRECT.

A *couple* of boys ran down the street.

In despite of our persuasions he sold his farm.

Directly he came to town he rented a house.

I *disremember* the date of his conviction.

He *donated* a generous gift to Mercy Hospital.

My friend is entitled to *every* confidence.

I *expect* you had difficulty in coming.

Our friends *experienced* rough treatment at the hands of the enemy.

He *extended* great kindness to me.

Those who could, *flew* from the pestilence.

My brother was afraid of *getting* left.

I *had* rather not go to New York tomorrow.

Peaches are a *healthy* fruit.

He told me *how that* he would reach Vancouver.

I noticed several *individuals* at the station.

John *laid* down to rest.

James went to *lay* down.

He *learned* me to read.

Leave William go.

Dr. White delivered a *lengthy* sermon.

I noticed *less* than ten persons in the room.

Do *like* your friend does.

I *love* a good breakfast.

Herbert goes to *Dunmore most* every day.

CORRECT.

Mr. Robinson and I have a common friend.

He mentioned the fact to no one.

Dr. Bright is a persuasive speaker.

The streets were tastefully decorated.

Henry Black was noted as a good citizen.

Ten yards were cut off that piece of silk.

Those pears are very fine.

He got on the roof.

They sent only four men to Scranton.

The lake has overflowed its banks.

The building of the house was a severe task.

That person is always present when not desired.

We solicit your custom.

He is continually talking of leaving.

Money is now plentiful.

I thank you for your kind invitation.

A large part of the street was obstructed by the parade.

Hamilton informed me fully as to the matter.

I assure you that we enjoyed our visit.

Mary had a considerable fortune left her.

It is very rare that a man will forget his home.

We had a very pleasant evening.

Let me say just here.

I saw him not long ago.

My father has improved somewhat since yesterday.

INCORRECT.

Mr. Robinson and I have a *mutual* friend.

He *named* the fact to no one.

Dr. Bright is a *nice* speaker.

The streets were *nice*ly decorated.

Henry Black was *notorious* as a good citizen.

Ten yards were cut *off of* that piece of silk.

Those pears are very fine *ones*.

He got *onto* the roof.

They only sent four men to Scranton.

The lake has *overflowed* its banks.

The building the house was a severe task.

That *party* is always present when not desired.

We solicit your *patronage*.

He is *perpetually* talking of leaving.

Money is now *plenty*.

I thank you for your *polite* invitation.

A large *portion* of the street was obstructed by the parade.

Hamilton *posted* me fully as to the matter.

I *promise* you that we enjoyed our visit.

Mary had *quite* a fortune left her.

It is very *rarely* that a man will forget his home.

We had a *real* pleasant evening.

Let me say *right* here.

I saw him not long *since*.

My father has improved *some* since yesterday.

CORRECT.

INCORRECT.

Her dress was very much out of style. Her dress was *perfectly awful*.

Where are you staying ?

Where are you *stopping* ?

We drove farther than they.

We drove farther than *them*.

This house cost more than you think.

This house cost more than you *think for*.

That kind of apples is preferable.

Those kind of apples are preferable.

An accident occurred yesterday on our street.

An accident *transpired* yesterday on our street.

The best of Longfellow's works is "Evangeline."

The best of Longfellow's works *was* "Evangeline."

Whence did she come ?

From whence did she come ?

John went hence.

John went *from* hence.

You will never succeed unless you study.

You will never succeed *without* you study.

10. Short and Long Words.—Following the principle that the diction of letter writing is about the same as that of good conversation, we should, in general, prefer short and simple words to long words derived from the Latin. The larger number of the short words of the English language are of Anglo-Saxon origin, but many come from other sources. If the word is in good use it matters not where it originated.

Short words are, in general, more easily understood than longer words; they are the words of ordinary and familiar events and feelings. It follows, therefore, that the use of short and familiar words saves not only the writer's time, but also the reader's time by lessening the effort required to grasp their meaning. In ordinary letter writing *get* is preferable to *procure*; *do*, to *perform*; *lift*, to *elevate*; *see*, to *discern* or *perceive*; *go*, to *depart*; *live*, to *reside*; *tired*, to *fatigued*; *ask*, to *petition*; and so on indefinitely.

Long words are needed to express ideas and feelings remote from the ordinary; thus, a candidate for the presidency in his letter of acceptance necessarily uses the long words of the vocabulary of politics; the President in his message to Congress necessarily uses the long words pertaining

to state affairs; for example, *resolution, communication, enactment, representative, amendment, constitutional*, etc.

11. Big Words.—The use of “dictionary words” simply because they are long and sound grand is an offense against good taste that should be studiously avoided. Do not use “tonorial artist” for *barber*; “maternal relative” for *mother*; “disciple of Izaak Walton” for *fisherman*; “national sport” for *baseball*; or “pugilistic carnival” for *prize fight*. Such expressions should remain the exclusive property of the newspaper reporter and the author of the third-rate novel.

CONSTRUCTION OF SENTENCES.

12. Characteristics of a Good Sentence.—In the construction of sentences, the letter writer should be guided by the following considerations: The sentence should conform to the established usage of the English language; it should be *grammatically correct*. The sentence should be *clear*; that is, it should be so constructed as to be easily and readily understood by the reader. The sentence should have *unity*; that is, it should express but one principal thought.

Minor characteristics of a good sentence are *force* and *ease*. A sentence is forcible when it is so framed as to produce a strong impression on the reader; a sentence has ease when it is agreeable to the ear.

While *unity, force, and ease* are essential in formal composition, they are of minor importance in letter writing. It is not to be expected that the writer of a letter will take time to polish each sentence, to examine it for unity, and to rearrange it until it fulfils the requirements of force and elegance. In fact, the probable result of an attempt on the part of the writer to make a literary production of a letter will be a cold and formal essay, rather than an expression of friendship and sympathy.

The letter writer, however, is held strictly accountable for the grammatical correctness and clearness of his sentences.

He should be correct for his own sake, for grammatical

errors stamp him as ignorant and illiterate; and he should write with clearness for the sake of the recipient of the letter.

13. Grammatical Errors.—A common error is the confusion of the past tense of the verb with the perfect participle; thus, “I seen” for “I saw,” and “I have saw” for “I have seen”; “He set down” for “He sat down”; “growed” for “grew”; etc. Another frequent error is the non-agreement of the verb and subject, or of the pronoun and antecedent; thus, “There *was* three in the front seat”; “Any one can have *their* choice for one dollar.”

To attain grammatical correctness in conversation and writing, one must study English grammar. It is not sufficient to know that a certain form of expression is incorrect merely because some one has told you it is incorrect. You should understand *why* such forms are errors, so that you may apply the test of correctness to all other expressions of the same nature.

14. Clearness.—Next to correctness, the most important characteristic of a good sentence is clearness. A writer that wishes the recipient of his letter to understand what he says must make his sentences so that they will mean to the reader what they mean to himself.

To write clearly one should heed the following rules:

1. Use only words that are fully understood by the person addressed and that convey the meaning intended.
2. Use as many words as are needed to convey the meaning easily and fully, and no more.
3. Arrange words, phrases, and clauses so that they are readily understood in themselves and in their relations with each other, and so that the final sentence cannot present an ambiguity.

15. The *omission of words* may cause obscurity in the meaning of a sentence. The parts of speech commonly omitted are the article, pronoun, and verb. A few examples will illustrate this point:

"Wanted, a coachman and gardener." As written, this means that one person is wanted and that he is to act as a coachman and also as a gardener. If two persons are meant, the sentence should read: "Wanted, a coachman and a gardener."

"The strength of steel is greater than iron," should be, "The strength of steel is greater than *that* of iron." The omission of a relative pronoun, as in this instance, is a frequent cause of obscurity.

"Jack is an industrious boy and his sisters amiable girls." The verb *are* is required in the second clause after the word "sisters." Be cautious in omitting verbs; in case of doubt, it is better to repeat a verb than to run the risk of obscurity. Consider the sentence, "He likes me better than you." The *mean* is ambiguous unless a second verb is used; the sentence should read, "He likes me better than he likes you," or "better than you like me," according to which is meant.

16. Pronouns.—The careless use of pronouns may render a sentence ambiguous or even unintelligible. For example, in the sentence, "Smith told Brown that if he did not have his pavement repaired, he might have trouble." There is nothing to indicate whether it is Smith's or Brown's pavement that is in question, or which of the two men will have trouble. It is sometimes difficult to recast such a sentence so that it will be both clear and smooth. In this example it is perhaps best to change from the third to the first person; thus, "Smith said to Brown, 'If you do not have your pavement repaired, you (or I) will have trouble.'"

17. The *misplacing of words and phrases* may cause ambiguity or obscurity. Two expressions that are likely to be misplaced are "at least" and "only." The sentence, "The English play cricket at least as well as we," may mean that they play the game as well as we do, if not better, or that this particular game, if no other game, they play as well as we do. To express the last meaning, the sentence should be written, "The English play *at least* cricket as well as we *do*."

"I *only* heard the approaching train." The position of "only" makes the sentence mean that I heard the train, but did not see it; if the intended meaning is that I heard the train and nothing else, the sentence should read, "I *heard only* the approaching train." In regard to the proper position

of this troublesome word, a good rule is, place it immediately before the word or phrase to which it belongs.

“She looked at the tramp as he approached the door with apprehension.” The writer means that “she looked with apprehension,” not that “the tramp approached with apprehension.” The ambiguity arises from the position of the phrase “with apprehension”; this phrase should immediately follow the verb “looked,” which it modifies. In all such cases, make it a rule to place modifying words and phrases as closely as possible to the words they modify.

18. Length of Sentences.—If a sentence is well constructed, its length is a matter of secondary importance. As a rule, however, the use of long sentences, especially by young or inexperienced writers, is a fruitful source of obscurity. In letter writing, it is better to use chiefly short sentences, not because they are intrinsically better than long ones, but because in the hurry of correspondence, the writer is not likely to take time to properly construct a long sentence.

Two defects are frequently observable in letters written by inexperienced writers. One is a succession of very short assertions each constituting a sentence; the other is the connection of several clauses that properly might constitute sentences by the conjunctions “and” and “but.” A young man upon leaving home for the city would perhaps write to his father as follows:

“DEAR FATHER:—I arrived here safely last night, and this morning I went to see Mr. Brown, and he is going to set me to work tomorrow, and I am sure I shall like the work very much, and I have found a very good boarding place,” etc.

Here are at least four distinct ideas bound together by the word “and.” Following the requirements of unity, we make a single sentence of each idea.

“DEAR FATHER:—I arrived here safely last night. This morning I went to see Mr. Brown, and he is going to set me at work tomorrow. I am sure I shall like the work very much. I have found a very good boarding place,” etc.

19. Loose and Periodic Sentences.—A *loose* sentence is one in which the various parts—subject, predicate, modifier, etc.—occur in the order that they naturally suggest themselves to the mind.

A *periodic* sentence is one in which the parts are so arranged that the sense is incomplete until the end is reached.

The following are examples of loose and periodic sentences:

LOOSE.

None but the fittest survive in the great struggle for existence.

The modern system of technical education renders inestimable aid to men not only in engineering but also in the ranks of the liberal professions.

PERIODIC.

In the great struggle for existence, none but the fittest survive.

To men not only in engineering but also in the ranks of the liberal professions, the modern system of technical education renders inestimable aid.

It will be observed that the loose sentence may be stopped before the end is reached and yet make grammatical sense, while the periodic sentence, on the other hand, is not a sentence until the last word is reached; thus the clause "None but the fittest survive" makes complete sense, but the phrase "In the great struggle for existence" is incomplete.

The principle of suspense makes the periodic sentence more emphatic than the loose sentence; hence, for the sake of variety and force, it is advisable to use occasionally the periodic form, provided the sentence is so short and simple that the reader can grasp the meaning at once.

In general, the loose sentence is easier to construct and easier to understand than the periodic sentence, simply because it follows the order in which the words naturally occur to a person, when he thinks of what he wishes to say and not of the form of expression; for this reason, the loose sentence is especially adapted to conversation and letter writing. Periodic sentences are appropriate for stately and formal composition.

20. Variety in the Use of Sentences.—In letter writing, as in all other forms of written composition, the

sentences should be influenced to some extent by the principle of variety. While we should as a rule use sentences, we should not by accident or design fill a letter with sentences of nearly the same length. Such a uniformity makes monotonous reading. For the sake of variety, sentences rather longer than usual should be occasionally used; and for the same reason the steady succession of sentences should be broken at intervals by the more varied periodic sentences.

Usually the question of variety will take care of itself. If the writer of a letter becomes absorbed in his subject and pays little or no attention to the form of expression, his sentences will naturally have sufficient variety. It is when the writer laboriously attempts to construct sentences by rule that his style is likely to become tame and monotonous.

PUNCTUATION.

21. The primary object of punctuation is to make as clear as possible the meaning of what we write. Correct punctuation always assists the reader in grasping the meaning of a sentence even when that meaning would be fairly obvious without punctuation; and in many sentences it is only by the punctuation that the meaning can be understood at all. Punctuation is therefore just as important a part of the construction of sentences as the choice of words or the arrangement of phrases and clauses; and it is as much the duty of the letter writer to make his meaning clear by proper punctuation as by the use of carefully arranged sentences.

Unfortunately, punctuation is quite generally neglected in letters; indeed, it is a rare occurrence to receive a letter even from an educated person in which there is an attempt at systematic punctuation. There is really no excuse for this neglect, as punctuation is not at all an art difficult of attainment. In ordinary letters it is very seldom necessary to use any marks other than the period, comma, semicolon, and interrogation point; and any one should easily learn the use of these points.

Punctuate as you write. Do not write the entire letter and then sprinkle in the marks afterwards. After a little practice you will insert the more common marks, the periods and commas, almost automatically, just as you dot your *i*'s and cross your *t*'s.

CONSTRUCTION OF PARAGRAPHS.

22. A **paragraph** is a single sentence or a connected series of sentences constituting the development of a single topic.

A letter should be paragraphed in the same manner as other compositions. One topic having been fully dealt with, the beginning of the next should be marked by a broken line, preparing the reader for the transition.

Do not, however, mar the letter by too many paragraphs. The amount and comprehensiveness of the material included in a paragraph varies greatly, according to the length and character of the composition, the office of the paragraph, and the writer's individual taste. Of a short letter, for instance, a paragraph may make up a large enough proportion to be a main division of the plan; oftener, however, it contains a much smaller section of the thought. A paragraph that merely makes a transition, or proposes a single idea as basis for further development is much shorter than a paragraph of detail. What is of more importance, however, than the length is that every paragraph should have a definite topic and structure, and should not be left, as is too often done by writers otherwise good, to make itself.

The fundamental requisites of a paragraph are *unity* and *continuity*.

23. Unity.—The paragraph is in reality an expanded sentence, and like the sentence should contain but one leading topic or idea. In fact, if a paragraph has the proper unity it should be possible to express the substance of it by a single sentence.

The leading idea of the paragraph is contained in the *topic*

sentence, which should be near the opening of the paragraph. Usually the topic sentence is the first one; frequently, however, it is preceded by a sentence that serves to form a connection between the paragraph and the one preceding.

The portion of the paragraph following the topic sentence must have some relation to the topic. It may be a proof, an illustration, an application, or a consequence of the topic.

24. Continuity. —In a well constructed paragraph the sentences follow one another in logical order and are so connected that the thought is carried without interruption from the beginning to the close.

Continuity may be secured by the judicious use of connecting words and phrases; such as, *and*, *but*, *for*, *however*, *hence*, *in fact*, *for example*, etc. The student should, however, guard against an excessive use of connectives; it is better to occasionally leave the relation to be inferred than to have every paragraph bristling with *hence's*, *however's*, *accordingly's*, etc. Frequently the relation is so obvious that the connective is not needed; and when this is not the case, it is usually possible by an inversion of the order of the words or by the repetition of a word to convey the sense of connection without using the connecting word.

As a rule, the law of continuity applies to the successive paragraphs of a composition as well as to the sentences in the paragraph. We should as far as possible join each paragraph to the preceding by some sort of a connecting link, so that the transition from paragraph to paragraph is made with as little friction as possible.

In business, official, and public letters the topics introduced are usually closely related and this principle of continuity can be rigidly applied. As an example, see the letter of Abraham Lincoln in reply to the invitation to attend the Union mass meeting at Springfield, Ill., which is given in another section. In social and familiar letters, however, the principle has necessarily a limited application. Such letters

usually contain a variety of topics, some of which are in no way related to others; and the transition from one paragraph to another on an entirely foreign subject must of necessity be somewhat abrupt.

25. The following extract from an article by Captain A. T. Mahan illustrates the qualities of unity and continuity:

"The establishment and maintenance of the blockade was, in the judgment of the present writer, not only the first step in order, but also the first by far in importance, open to the government of the United States as things were, prior, that is, to the arrival of Cervera's division at some known and accessible point. *Its* importance lay in its two-fold tendency to exhaust the enemy's army in Cuba, and to force the navy to come to his relief. No effect more decisive than *these two* could be produced by us before the coming of the hostile navy, or the readiness of our own army to take the field, permitting the contest to be brought, using the words of our Italian commentator, 'to an immediate issue.' Upon the *blockade, therefore*, the generally accepted principles of warfare would demand that effort should be concentrated, until some evident radical change in the conditions dictated a change of object—a new objective; upon which, when accepted, effort again should be concentrated with a certain amount of 'exclusiveness of purpose.'

"Blockade, *however*, implies not merely a sufficient number of cruisers to prevent the entry or departure of merchant ships. It *further* implies, because it requires, a strong supporting force, . . . etc."—Capt. A. T. MAHAN, *McClure's Magazine*, Feb., 1890.

The topic of the first paragraph, "the importance of the blockade," is stated in the first sentence. The two following sentences are explanatory; they give the reasons for the importance of the blockade. The last sentence of the paragraph states the evident conclusion that effort should be concentrated upon the blockade. The continuity is preserved by the use of the pronouns, connectives, and repeated words printed in *italic*.

In the second paragraph (which is not given in full) the topic is, "the blockade requires a strong supporting force." This paragraph is linked to the one preceding by the connective "*however*," thus fulfilling the law of continuity between paragraphs.

STYLE IN LETTER WRITING.

INTRODUCTORY.

26. **Style** refers to the manner in which one expresses his thoughts in language; thus we say that one writer's style is easy and flowing; another's is crisp and vigorous; while another's may be labored and ponderous.

In general, letters differ from most other forms of written discourse in having a more natural and easy mode of expression. In a letter there should be no straining after effect; the diction should be simple, and figures of speech, if they are used at all, should appear spontaneously, as they naturally would in conversation.

The letter-writing, or *epistolary*, style, as we may term it, is itself subject to variation; in fact, almost every kind of letter has an appropriate style, depending on the subject and the person addressed. In familiar letters the style should be familiar; in business letters, it should be direct and concise; in official or public letters, it should be formal and impressive. Letters to superiors should be respectful; to relations, affectionate; to children, light and playful; and all letters should be courteous.

In writing a letter, be sure to employ a style suitable to the person and the character of the letter. To use the familiar style of the domestic letter in writing to a stranger or mere acquaintance would make you ridiculous in the eyes of the recipient; on the other hand, a letter to a close friend or a relative, written in the formal and concise style of the business letter, would be equally inappropriate.

STYLE IN BUSINESS CORRESPONDENCE.

27. Brevity.—One of the essential qualities of business correspondence that cannot be too strongly dwelt upon is brevity. Many a young man has failed to get a situation because he had too much to say when making his application.

Business men have no time to waste, and appreciate brevity. Brevity of expression, if combined with neatness, clearness, and courtesy, always makes a good impression upon the true business man. One of the greatest helps to success in any walk of life is to think concisely and to express one's self briefly.

"Be brief," Cyrus W. Field once advised a friend. "Time is very valuable. Punctuality, honesty, and brevity are the watchwords of life. Never write a long letter. A business man has not time to read it. If you have anything to say, be brief. There is no business so important that it cannot be told on one sheet of paper. Years ago when I was laying the Atlantic Cable, I had occasion to send a very important letter to England. I knew it would have to be read by the Prime Minister and by the Queen. I wrote out what I had to say; it covered several sheets of paper; then I went over it twenty times, eliminating words here and there, making sentences brief, until finally I got all I had to say on one sheet of paper. Then I mailed it. In due time I received the answer. It was a satisfactory one, too; but do you think I would have fared so well if my letter had covered half a dozen sheets? No, indeed. Brevity is a rare gift."

Brevity should not be attained, however, by the omission of words essential to grammatical construction. It is a common fault of many business men to drop pronouns and verbs as in the following: "Yours of 15th inst. received, and in reply enclose draft, etc." Such omissions denote haste on the part of the writer rather than a desire to shorten the letter for the convenience of the recipient.

Brevity is promoted by the liberal use of the terms and phrases peculiar to business, and it is the duty of a person engaged in business correspondence to familiarize himself with such terms as are peculiar to the line of business in which he is engaged.

28. Aside from brevity, the style employed in business letters should be distinguished by *clearness* and *accuracy*. Clearness is promoted by the use of short, direct sentences.

A business letter is the least appropriate place for long or involved sentences. Avoid especially the conjunctions *and* and *but*.

Several points regarding business letters that do not properly belong to *style* will be given later under the heading "General Suggestions."

STYLES IN SOCIAL LETTERS.

29. The style of expression adapted to social letters is more difficult to acquire than the direct and concise style of business correspondence. Many that write good business letters are prone to carry the business style into their other correspondence and write dull and uninteresting social letters.

The principal quality of the style of a social letter is *naturalness*. Write a letter to a friend in the same language that you would use in talking to him. Think of what you would say to him if he were at your side and say these things in the letter. Avoid affectation, and do not use big words and ornamental language that you would not think of using in conversation. Write a letter, not an essay.

The quality of brevity is not so essential in social letters as in business letters. One can take time to read a letter of some length if it is interesting. In a friendly letter do not hesitate to write of little every-day details that you would naturally bring up in conversation. Proceed upon the principle that anything that will interest a person in conversation will interest him in a letter. When, however, you have written what you have to say, close your letter; do not fall into the pernicious habit of writing words merely to fill space.

30. Many writers experience difficulty in the opening and closing sentences of a letter. The opening should be perfectly natural and should introduce the subject uppermost in the mind. Avoid in the opening such set phrases as "I now take my pen in hand to tell you that I am well,

etc.," "I thought I would drop you a line to let you know, etc." A familiar letter usually ends with an expression of compliment or affection in addition to the complimentary close.

A few suggestive examples of the opening and closing sentences of letters are here given:

(William Cowper to his cousin.)

OLNEY, April 24, 1786.

MY DEAR COZ.,

Your letters are so much my comfort, that I often tremble lest by accident I should be disappointed; and the more because you have been more than once engaged in company on the writing day, that I have had a narrow escape. Let me give you a piece of good counsel, my cousin: follow my laudable example—write when you can; take Time's forelock in one hand and a pen in the other and make sure of your opportunity.

The grass begins to grow, and the leaves to bud, and everything is preparing to be beautiful against you come. Adieu, my dear Coz.

Ever yours,
W. COWPER.

(Addison to Swift.)

ST. JAMES'S PLACE, April 11, 1710.

DEAR SIR,

I have run so much in debt with you, that I do not know how to excuse myself, and therefore shall throw myself wholly upon your good nature; and promise if you will pardon what is past, to be more punctual with you in the future.

Pray, dear Doctor, continue your friendship towards me, who love and esteem you, if possible, as much as you deserve.

I am ever, dear sir, yours entirely,
J. ADDISON.

(Bernard Barton to George Crabbe.)

WOODBIDGE, August 20, 1846.

I was going to begin "My dear old Friend," for I have sometimes hard work to convince myself that our acquaintance is only of a few years' standing.

(Thomas Hood to a child.)

DEVONSHIRE LODGE, NEW FINCHLEY ROAD, July 1, 1844.

How do you do? and how do you like the sea? Not much, perhaps; but shouldn't you like a nice little ocean that you could

(*Charles Lamb to Coleridge.*)

MARCH 9, 1822.

It gives me great satisfaction to hear that the pig turned out so well—they are interesting creatures at a certain age—what a pity such buds should blow out into the maturity of rank bacon!

GENERAL SUGGESTIONS.

31. Courtesy in Letter Writing.—The first and most important rule to be observed by the writer of a letter is: *Be courteous.* He was a gentleman that said, “I would as soon give a man a bad sixpence as a bad word.” Courtesy is but paying the debt of self-respect. Write nothing but kind words, and you will have nothing but kind echoes. Francis of Assisi justly said: “Know thou not that Courtesy is of God’s own properties, who sendeth His rain and His sunshine upon the just and the unjust, out of His great Courtesy; verily Courtesy is the sister of Charity, who banishes Hatred and cherishes Love.”

It is in the field of social correspondence that the true lady and the truly manful man have, perhaps, the best opportunity to manifest that real gentleness, amiability, and singleness of purpose to say and do what is right, so becoming to the men and women of a Christian age and country. Show us a people’s letters of affection, of condolence, sympathy, and congratulation, and we can at once determine their moral, social, and political worth.

Courtesy is, besides, an important element in business success. With some it is their capital and stock in trade. It has made the fortune of many a man. Other things being equal, we all prefer to do business with the man that is agreeable and courteous in his dealings; and these qualities, therefore, increase his business. What is true of conversation applies also to business done through the medium of correspondence. An imperious or commanding tone is always offensive and should be carefully avoided in letter writing. Compare the following:

"You will write me immediately upon the receipt of this letter."

"Will you kindly write me immediately, etc."?

"Please write me immediately, etc."

The sentence as first written is rendered commanding in tone by the words "You will"; and unless it is the right and duty of the writer to command, the form of expression would be likely to give the recipient a disagreeable impression. By the use of the word *kindly* or the word *please*, the sentence loses its commanding tone and becomes a courteous request.

32. Deliberation.—No one should write a letter when angry, nor, as a rule, when inclined to say severe things. If one receives a letter provoking him to anger it is better to wait a little before answering; then probably the style of his reply will be entirely changed. Words hastily spoken, and letters written in haste or anger, one usually would like later to recall. Hasty or vindictive words make enemies and endanger business, while kind words make and hold friends. Make it a rule never to write a letter when strongly excited. Wait until reason again assumes full control of your actions. This caution applies not only to excitement due to anger, but also to the excitement of affection.

33. Truthfulness.—In writing, as in talking, we should always be strictly truthful. Untruthfulness often leads to unfair dealing and possibly to crime, while strict truthfulness and honesty in small, as well as large, things gains the confidence of others, and is best as a matter of policy, if for no higher motive. True and lasting business success comes only from honor and strict integrity.

34. Moderation.—Closely related to truthfulness is the quality of moderation. Do not fall into the habit of using exaggerated expressions such as "just too splendid," "perfectly gorgeous," "perfectly awful," "immense," etc. Be moderate in the use of descriptive adjectives. Do not exaggerate.

35. Originality.—The model letters given in this paper are intended to be merely suggestive. The student should study them carefully for the purpose of improving his style, diction, punctuation, paragraphing, etc., but he should never be guilty of copying word for word any part of one of them in a letter of his own. The copying of another's language without due acknowledgment is *plagiarism*, an offense justly considered as no better than theft. If you express another's ideas or sentiments, at least do so in your own language.

36. Copying Letters.—Business people usually keep copies of all important letters for possible future reference. The plan ordinarily adopted is to take a letter-press copy on tissue paper; when this is done copying ink must be used in writing the letter. In the case of typewritten letters, a carbon copy may be made when the letter is written. If the letter is an answer, it is convenient to file the copy with the letter answered. It is not customary to preserve copies of social letters.

37. Enclosing Stamp.—A letter asking a favor or treating of business in which only the writer and not the recipient is interested, should have a stamp enclosed for the answer. It is rather too much to expect a person to devote his time to affairs that concern only yourself and pay postage in addition. The enclosed stamp may be fastened to the paper by slightly moistening one corner. Perhaps a better plan is to stick it by the gummed margin connected to the outer row of a sheet of stamps, as then the stamp may be removed without danger of tearing the corner.

38. Promptness of Answers.—From the standpoint of the recipient of the letter, correspondence demands close and courteous attention. Letters, especially business letters, should be answered with reasonable promptness. A business man that remits promptly at maturity, and acknowledges orders or remittances promptly, is esteemed by those with whom he has business relations. The good will thus gained may be of value.

In the case of social letters, the interval of time between letter and answer depends, of course, on the relation of the correspondents.

39. Date of Letter Answered.—The answer to a business letter should contain a reference to the date of the letter answered; thus, "In answer to your letter of the 10th inst.," or "Your letter of May 3 is at hand." Frequently the original letter must be referred to in connection with the answer, and the reference to the date may save much time in finding the right letter.

40. Recapitulation.—Besides the date of the letter answered there should properly be some reference in the opening sentence of the answer to the business under consideration. Thus, "Your letter of the 8th inst. concerning the application of Samuel Hall is at hand." This reference to the subject of the original letter will recall the business to the mind of your correspondent and possibly save him the trouble of looking up the letter.

41. Care of Letters.—Important letters are of course preserved by the recipient. Business men usually make use of some form of letter file, in which the letters are arranged in the alphabetical order of the initials of the names of the senders. Unanswered letters are kept separate. In lieu of a better method the letters may be folded to a uniform size, arranged, and tied up in bundles. It is well in this case to write on one end of the back of the letter the date, name of writer, and date of answer. In addition the subject of the letter may be noted.

Copies are preserved in a letter book; if carbon copies are taken they may be filed like the letters.

42. Neatness.—Always be careful in the writing of a letter to avoid blots, corrections, or erasures. If one knows well what he wishes to say, there is no excuse for leaving out essential words or for repeating a word. In letters to relatives and friends one should show respect enough not to

send a carelessly written letter, marred with blots and ink stains. Business letters, however, demand especial care in this regard. A letter of application, for example, if badly written, may be the means of losing a position that otherwise might have been secured. Make the letter perfect as regards neatness and accuracy, even if it has to be rewritten.

43. Spelling.—An essential as important as neatness is correct spelling. A writer that is not a good speller should constantly refer to a dictionary for the spelling of words that he is not sure of. In fact, the writing of letters is one of the best means of obtaining a knowledge of spelling, provided the writer conscientiously tries to avoid mistakes.

44. Legibility.—Do not write so that your correspondent may be unable to read your letter, or meet with great difficulty in doing so.

Mr. Thomas Bailey Aldrich once received a letter from his friend, Professor E. S. Morse, and finding the handwriting absolutely illegible, sent the following reply:

MY DEAR MR. MORSE—It was very pleasant to receive a letter from you the other day. Perhaps I should have found it pleasanter if I had been able to decipher it. I don't think I mastered anything beyond the date, which I knew and the signature, which I guessed at. There is a singular and perpetual charm in a letter of yours. It never grows old, it never loses its novelty. One can say to oneself every morning: "Here's a letter of Morse's. I haven't read it yet. I think I shall take another shy at it today, and maybe I'll be able in the course of a few years to make out what he means by those *l*'s that look like *w*'s and those *l*'s that haven't any eyebrows." Other letters are read and thrown away and forgotten, but yours are kept forever unread. One of them will last a reasonable man a lifetime.

Admiringly yours,

THOMAS BAILEY ALDRICH.

45. Signatures.—We have before referred to the necessity of writing the signature legibly (see Part 1, Art. 33). This point, however, cannot be too strongly emphasized. Sign your name to the letter so that there can be no possible doubt as to the spelling. Some business men cultivate a characteristic signature, which they use for checks and business papers. Such a signature is often purposely almost

illegible, and obviously should not be used for a letter except to a well known correspondent.

Care should be taken that the letter is signed. Type-written letters, in particular, are liable to be mailed without signature. Carelessness in this respect on the part of the writer must result in annoyance and loss of time and may result in loss of money.

46. Superscription.—Faulty envelope addresses are about as frequent as omitted signatures. Indeed, it is not at all unusual for the superscription to be omitted entirely, especially in the case of postal cards. Make it a rule always to write the superscription of a postal card before you write the communication. See that the superscription is so complete that it is sure to reach the person addressed. Scores of letters never reach their destination merely because that destination is not indicated with sufficient clearness on the envelope.

47. Address.—In an important letter, one should give his full address if he desires an answer.

48. Titles.—In regard to titles, one should be careful to give to others appropriate titles, but should not use them in connection with his own name. Thus, one should, when proper, use Rev., Hon., Prof., etc. in the address and superscription but not in the signature. One may, however, attach his professional title, as M.D. or M.E., in business or official letters, but should not do so in familiar or social letters.

Never use the two titles, Mr. and Esq. with the same name; as, "Mr. William Burr, Esq." If you use the Mr., omit the Esq., and vice versa.

49. Use of Figures.—In the body of a letter figures should not, in general, be used except in writing dates or sums of money. If, however, there are many large numbers it is better to express them by figures. The usage should be uniform throughout the letter; if a number is written in words in one part of the letter, another number, used in a similar sense, should not be expressed by figures.

50. Paging.—The separate sheets of a letter—when the letter consists of more than one sheet—should be numbered consecutively. The first sheet need not be numbered. In typewritten letters it is quite customary to write the initials of the name of the person written to, the date, and number of the sheet at the top of the sheet; as, C. P. T., 3-15-99—the figures 3-15-99 indicating, of course, March 15, 1899.

51. The Right Envelope.—When several letters are written consecutively there is danger of getting the letter in the wrong envelope. It is best to insert the letter in the envelope as soon as it is written, but when for any reason this is impracticable, each letter should be placed under the flap of the proper envelope. When the letters are ready for sealing, the clerk, or whoever folds and seals them, should glance at the name on each letter and see that it corresponds to the name on the envelope.

52. Sealing.—In sealing letters care should be taken not to soil the envelope. With an ordinary gummed envelope, it is well to place a blotter or clean sheet of paper over the envelope rather than allow the hand to come in contact with it. Ladies often seal their social letters with wax, using a seal on which their initial or initials have been engraved. Letters of recommendation, introduction, and some formal notes, when delivered personally, should not be sealed.

ANALYSIS OF LETTERS.

BUSINESS LETTERS.

LETTERS ORDERING GOODS.

53. A letter ordering goods should contain very few words except the order, unless some special instructions are to be given.

The order, if short, is usually placed in the body of the letter, though it may be placed at the bottom of the letter if

desired. A long order should occupy a separate sheet. When the list of goods is written in the body of the letter, each item should be given a separate line or two or more lines if necessary.

In ordering any kind of goods give a full description of the articles wanted so that there may be no error in filling the order. Very often goods are ordered from a dealer's catalogue, in which the various qualities and styles are designated by numbers or some other distinguishing marks; in this case, the order should give the number, the quantity, the price, and when necessary a list of the sizes desired. If the firm from which you order has a special form or blank that they desire used, you should accede to their wishes and their instructions in every detail.

Unless the party written to knows from previous orders the conveyance by which you wish the goods shipped, you should state your preference on this point.

In ordering goods from a business house with which the writer has a business connection, it is not necessary to say anything in the order about the terms of payment. When, however, one orders from a firm with which he has no business standing, he should either send the money with the order, give suitable references, or order the goods sent C. O. D.

LETTER ORDERING MERCHANDISE.

DANVILLE, ILL.,
March 3, 1899.

OWENS, CLEVELAND & Co.,
Chicago, Ill.

Gentlemen,

Referring to your catalogue No. 31, please send me the goods noted in the enclosed list.

I shall need these goods for the Easter trade, and shall, therefore, expect them without delay.

Ship by the C. & E. I. Ry.

Yours very truly,
SIMON C. GORDON.

LIST OF GOODS.

Order of March 8, 1899, sent by S. C. Gordon, Danville, Ill.

Neckwear:

3 Doz.	Assorted Tecks,	at \$4.25
2 "	" Imperials,	" 4.50
12 "	String Ties,	" 1.00
6 "	Band Bows,	" 2.25

Half Hose:

			9 ³	10	10 ³	11
3 Doz.,	No. 423, Fancy Stripe,	at \$2.25,	$\frac{1}{2}$	1	1	$\frac{1}{2}$
10 "	No. 437, Black,	" 1.10,	2	3	3	2
2 "	No. 444, Fancy,	" 4.25,	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$	$\frac{1}{2}$
5 "	No. 392, Seamless,	" .75,				

Handkerchiefs:

5 Doz.,	No. 874, Japanese,	at \$1.00
3 "	No. 842, White H. S.,	" 2.25
10 "	No. 817, White, Cord Edge,	" .50

Belts:

		30	32	34	36	38	40
2 Doz.,	No. 367, at \$4.50	3	4	5	6	3	3
4 "	No. 374, " 2.25	4	6	12	12	8	6

Underwear:

8 $\frac{1}{2}$ Doz.,	No. 36, Plain Balbriggan,	at \$4.50
		30 32 34 36 38 40 42 44
Shirts,		$\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$
Drawers,	$\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$ 1 1 $\frac{1}{2}$ $\frac{1}{2}$	

Umbrellas:

1 Doz.,	No. 311, 26 inch,	at \$.75 each
1 "	No. 314, 28 "	" .90 "
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	No. 322, 27 "	" 1.50 "
$\frac{1}{2}$ "	No. 331, 28 "	" 2.00 "
$\frac{1}{4}$ "	No. 369, 28 "	" 2.50 "

54. Analysis.—This letter is written by Mr. Gordon, who conducts a men’s furnishing store in Danville, to Owens, Cleland & Co., wholesale dealers, in Chicago.

The letter is brief and to the point. In the first sentence Mr. Gordon indicates that in making up the list of goods ordered he has been guided by the wholesale firm’s catalogue, and to prevent any misunderstanding gives the number of the catalogue. In filling the order, the clerks of Owens, Cleland & Co. will consult their catalogue No. 31 for the styles and qualities of the goods named in the list.

In the second paragraph the writer properly cautions the wholesale firm against delay. It is always well, in such cases, to state the time the goods are desired. If the goods are wanted at once, say "Ship at once," or "Ship without delay"; if there is no hurry, you may say, "Ship at your convenience, or "Please ship the goods named in the enclosed order," without reference to the time of shipment.

In the last sentence the route is indicated. It is frequently more convenient for a merchant to receive his goods at a certain freight station or express office. When such is the case he should indicate his preference in the order and the shippers should of course respect his wishes in the matter. Sometimes it is necessary to indicate also whether the shipment shall be made by freight or express. In this case directions in this particular are unnecessary, as the dealers will naturally ship by freight unless directed to do otherwise.

Little comment is required on the rhetorical construction of the letter. The style employed is the typical, concise business style. In three short sentences the writer says all that is necessary, and any additional words would be wasted.

The sentences are clear and grammatically correct. It may be noted that in the first sentence the object of the verb *send* is *goods*. Not infrequently an order reads somewhat like this: "Please send me the enclosed list of goods." Here the object of the verb is *list*. The writer in reality asks the dealers to send him the list that he sends them, though he of course means to request them to ship the goods. These little points in precision and grammatical accuracy are what distinguish really good letter writers.

The letter being short, each sentence constitutes a paragraph. Obviously the first two sentences are closely enough connected to form one paragraph, but there can be no objection to the present arrangement. The last sentence should of course constitute a separate paragraph.

While the letter is courteous, the terms of courtesy are not multiplied. The commanding tone that the first sentence might have is avoided by the word "please." There would be no particular objection to a repetition of this word

in the last sentence; however, as this sentence is merely a direction and in no sense a request, the omission of some such word as *please* or *kindly* would not be construed as a discourtesy by any business man. It would be inappropriate to say, "I will be much obliged if you will kindly ship by the C. & E. I. Ry." When stated in this form, the sentence gives the impression that Mr. Gordon is asking a particular favor, whereas, in reality, to designate the route is his right.

The complimentary close, "Yours very truly," is formal and sufficiently courteous, considering the relation of the correspondents. "Yours respectfully" would be proper, but "Your dutiful servant" would be quite out of place.

The arrangement of the parts of the letter leaves nothing to be desired. The heading consists of two lines, as it should, being rather long. The address also occupies two lines. As this business house is well known in Chicago, it is unnecessary to give street and number in the inside address, but it may be placed on the envelope, as a possible aid to the postal clerks. The salutation "Gentlemen" is correct. The body of the letter begins on the space below the salutation, though it might properly begin on the same line.

We turn now to the punctuation of the letter. In the heading, the four items are separated by commas, a period follows the abbreviation "Ill.," and another is placed at the end. In the address the items are likewise separated by commas, and a comma separates the two names in the firm. According to the ordinary rules for the use of commas, it may be urged that a comma should follow the name "Cleveland" also, but it is the universal custom to write firm names with the punctuation given in the letter. The period after the abbreviation "Ill." serves also to mark the close of the address. The salutation "Gentlemen" is followed by a comma. Some writers prefer to use a colon, and many use the dash with either the comma or colon. The dash should be used when the body of the letter follows the salutation on the same line, but we see no good reason for using it when the salutation is on the line above the body of the letter. In the first sentence the comma after "31" separates the

preceding phrase from the following remainder of the sentence. In the second sentence the comma after "trade" separates the two clauses of the sentence; the word "therefore" is of a parenthetical nature and is set off by commas. Periods follow each of the three sentences and the abbreviations of the name of the railroad. The complimentary close is followed by a comma, as it should be, and the signature is followed by a period.

Each proper name begins with a capital letter. The first word of each sentence begins with a capital letter, as does also the salutation and the complimentary close. The abbreviation of the railroad consists of the initial letters of the name "Chicago and Eastern Illinois"; and each letter is a capital. The word "Easter" also begins with a capital.

55. The order is written not in the body of the letter, but on separate sheets. The writer consults the convenience of his correspondents by closely following their catalogue. Doing so, he divides his letter into several paragraphs, each with a heading taken from the catalogue clearly indicating the class of goods he wishes to order.

Under the heading "Neckwear" appear four items, each occupying one line. First is given the quantity, then the style or variety, and at the end of the item, the price per dozen.

Under the heading "Half Hose," we have in addition to the quantity, style, and price, the catalogue number and a list of the sizes. The use of the catalogue number saves a lengthy description of the quality, material, etc., as this description is given in the catalogue under the number in question. The rows of figures at the right denote the sizes ordered; thus, the first item if written in full would read, "3 doz. Fancy Stripe, $\frac{1}{2}$ doz. of size $9\frac{1}{2}$, 1 doz of size 10, 1 doz. of size $10\frac{1}{2}$, and $\frac{1}{2}$ doz. of size 11." In business practice, fractional sizes are always indicated as here shown. 9^2 denotes $9\frac{1}{2}$, 9^3 denotes $9\frac{3}{4}$, and 9^1 denotes $9\frac{1}{4}$.

In ordering goods that are made in different sizes, the merchant is careful to indicate the quantity required of each size, having regard for the probable demand for the various

sizes and for the condition of the stock on hand. Thus, in the present instance, the merchant orders a larger quantity of the medium sizes 10 and $10\frac{1}{2}$ than of the extreme sizes $9\frac{1}{2}$ and 11.

Under the fourth heading "Belts," the number of belts is indicated for each size from 30 to 40; and under the heading "Underwear," the number of dozens, the fraction of a dozen of both shirts and drawers are given for each of the sizes from 30 to 44. The merchant after looking over his stock concludes that he requires no more shirts of sizes 30 and 32 or drawers of sizes 42 and 44. Had he neglected to give the sizes required and depended on the wholesale house for an assortment, they might make up the bulk of the order of one size of which they have a surplus on hand.

There are some points regarding punctuation, capitalization, and abbreviations that deserve notice. The heading of each paragraph, as "Neckwear," "Half Hose," etc., is properly followed by a colon. This follows from the principle that a colon should precede a series of particulars or a series of items. The punctuation of the individual items follows ordinary rules; thus, the catalogue number, being parenthetical, is separated by commas from what precedes and follows; and the phrases "at \$2 25," "at \$1.10," etc. are also set off by commas.

In orders, invoices, and advertisements, capital letters are used very freely; in fact, it is almost the rule to begin each word with a capital letter, and the exception to begin a word with a small letter. The order under consideration is no exception; almost every word save the preposition "at" is dignified by a capital. Whether this excessive use of the capital letters is justifiable from the rhetorical point of view is a question. The fact remains, however, that it is a universal custom among business men, and in this case, as in most others, *custom makes law*.

Another characteristic of the order is the free use of abbreviations. The word "dozen" is invariably abbreviated to Doz. or Dz., generally with a capital letter, and the ditto abbreviation "is largely used. There are other abbreviations peculiar to the class of goods; thus, "H.S." for "hemstitched." The general rule, "Do not abbreviate in

letter writing," is reversed in orders for goods, and becomes, "Abbreviate wherever possible."

The letter that we have just analyzed will give the student an idea of the forms employed in ordering goods. An order from a merchant in some other line of business, say stationery or hardware, would, of course, differ somewhat in little details from the order just considered, but the body of the letter would be substantially the same. It is manifestly impossible to give here all the intricate details that may arise in correspondence relating to various kinds of business. We can give only general principles; but a student that understands these principles relating to letters ordering goods, will readily master the details pertaining to any particular business that he may be engaged in.

LETTERS ACKNOWLEDGING ORDERS.

56. Except in the case of small mail orders, where the sending of the goods constitutes a sufficient acknowledgment, it is a commendable custom to acknowledge an order immediately upon its receipt. The sender of the order upon receipt of the acknowledgment feels that his order is receiving attention.

Some firms acknowledge the order by sending an invoice; this custom is not to be recommended unless the invoice states the probable date of shipment; and in any case, a formal letter is better.

LETTER ACKNOWLEDGING ORDER FOR GOODS.

CHICAGO, ILL.,
March 5, 1899.

MR. SIMON C. GORDON,
Danville, Ill.

Dear Sir,

We beg to acknowledge the receipt of your valued order of the 3d inst. The goods noted therein will be shipped today by the C. & E. I. Ry. We trust you will find them satisfactory.

Thanking you for this order and hoping to be favored by others in the future, we remain,

Yours very truly,
OWENS, CLIFLAND & Co.

57. Analysis.—Messrs. Owens, Cleland & Co., recognizing the value of a prompt acknowledgment, immediately write Mr. Gordon upon the receipt of his order. They inform him that his order has been received and that the goods ordered will be forwarded on the day of their writing.

By the fact of their mentioning the date of his order, Mr. Gordon will at once perceive that reference is made to his letter of March 3, enclosing that order. He might have written Owens, Cleland & Co. another letter the same day enclosing a check or money order, or he might have written them on the 4th, enclosing another and quite different order for goods. Hence the value of the particular reference to his letter of March 3 enclosing a special list of goods. It is always, indeed, advisable for a business man or firm to mention the date of the letter that is being answered.

After this reference to the date, Owens, Cleland & Co. inform their correspondent that they will ship the goods by the desired route and express the hope that they will be found satisfactory. They then courteously express thanks for the order and conclude by asking for future orders.

This letter is in all respects one that a great business firm might properly address to a reliable and trustworthy customer. The letter is brief, but not so brief as to give the impression of haste or discourtesy. The actual information conveyed might have been put in one sentence; thus, "We have received your order of the 3d and will ship goods today." If, however, the letter consisted of this single statement, it would seem curt and would not perhaps produce a favorable impression on the recipient. By the use of the word "valued" in the first sentence, the firm gives Mr. Gordon the impression that they value his order and are glad to have business relations with him. Of course Mr. Gordon may take it for granted that Owens, Cleland & Co. are glad to receive an order, but the assurance is nevertheless in some degree gratifying. Any one is pleased to feel that a favor on his part is appreciated.

The third sentence expressing the hope that the goods will be satisfactory shows that the firm is anxious to please the

customer in the quality of the goods. An expression of this character is always appropriate in an acknowledgment of an order. The last sentence is in keeping with the preceding portion of the letter; it is practically a request for the continuation and enlargement of the business relations existing between the firm and Mr. Gordon.

The sentences of the letter are short, clear, and grammatically correct. The first three sentences are closely connected and naturally form one paragraph. It will be noticed that the continuity is secured seemingly without attention on the part of the writer. In the second sentence, "therein" refers to the order mentioned in the first sentence; and the third sentence is connected to the second by the pronoun "them" referring to the "goods" of the second sentence. The last sentence merges into the complimentary close and for that reason is made a paragraph. It is a general rule that when the closing sentence of a letter is preparatory to the complimentary close, it should begin a new paragraph.


The arrangement of the parts of the letter is faultless. The address should clearly occupy two lines, and, the letter being short, it is perhaps preferable to begin the body on the line below the salutation. There is some difference of opinion as to the proper position of the clause "we remain" in the last sentence. Some prefer to put it on a separate line; thus:

————— by others in the future,
We remain,
Yours very truly,
OWENS, CLELAND & Co.

In this case "we" must begin with a capital letter. We believe it is better, however, to write this clause in the body of the sentence. In either case, it must be set off by commas.

There is nothing in the punctuation or capitalization of the letter that requires special comment.

58. For the student's guidance, we append two shorter letters ordering goods and the acknowledgments thereto:



BAY CITY, MICH.,
May 7, 1899.

MESSRS. KEUFFEL & ESSER,
New York.

Gentlemen,—Please ship by American Express, C. O. D., the following:

12 Quires Universal Paper, 27" × 40", at \$2.25 per Quire.

3 " Paragon " 22" × 30", " 2.50 " "

100 Sheets Whatman's No. 2, 19" × 24", at .10 per Sheet.

5 Doz. Patent Office Bristol Board, No. 21, 15" × 20", at .60 per Doz.

1 Roll No. 150 Tracing Cloth, 36 in., at 8.25.

Kindly credit me with the usual discount.

Yours truly,
J. C. SAUNDERS,
230 Huron St.

NEW YORK, May 10, 1899.

MR. J. C. SAUNDERS,
230 Huron St.,
Bay City, Mich.

Dear Sir:—The order with which you have kindly favored us, under date of May 7, has been filled and shipment will be made today. We trust that the articles will reach you in good condition, and hope to be favored with many future orders.

Very truly yours,
KEUFFEL & ESSER.
Per J.

FRANKLIN, IA., July 6, 1898.

THE DEERING HARVESTER CO.,
Chicago, Ill.

Gentlemen,

Please ship us at once by fast freight 20 Deering harvesters.

Yours truly,
SPENCER & LOFTUS.

CHICAGO, ILL.,
July 8, 1898.

SPENCER & LOFTUS,
Franklin, Ia.

Gentlemen,

We have today received your order of the 6th inst., for which accept our thanks. We will ship the harvesters tomorrow, the 9th, at the latest.

Yours respectfully,
THE DEERING HARVESTER CO.
Per M. R. W.

LETTERS OF APPLICATION.

59. Under this heading we class letters applying for employment. In such a letter, state your qualifications clearly, modestly, and in a businesslike tone. Answer all particulars mentioned in the advertisement. Do not send the originals of testimonials in applying for a situation, but copy each testimonial on a separate sheet, marked "Copy" at the top of the page.

The writer's letter of application is often the only evidence of his fitness for a position; therefore, great care should be taken in the writing and in the wording of the letter. Numerous advertisements seen in the papers close with the words, "Apply in your own handwriting," showing the importance that business men place on good penmanship. Read your letter over carefully before sending it, and if you see any way in which the wording might be improved, or find a single mistake, the letter should by all means be rewritten.

Your success in securing the place may depend on slight extra trouble on your part in writing the letter. If the position is an important one, you will be almost sure to fail in securing it, unless your letter of application is carefully written.

The applicant should usually state what his education has been; what experience, if any, he has had in business; his age, habits, qualifications, etc., and give any general information concerning himself that might interest the persons addressed. It is well to enclose copies of letters of recommendation, if he have such. While the applicant should state his qualifications clearly, it is equally important that he state them modestly as well.

LETTER OF APPLICATION.

AUBURN, N. Y., May 24, 1899.

THE BRIDGE ENGINE CO.,
Salem, Ohio.

Gentlemen:

On account of the state of my wife's health it has become necessary for me to leave Auburn for some place better suited to her requirements. I should like, therefore, to obtain a situation with

your firm, either as a foreman in your machine shop or as a journeyman machinist.

I am thirty-six years of age. For the past seven years I have been employed in the shops of McIntosh, Seymour & Co., and during the last three years I have held the position of assistant foreman, having charge of their lathe and planer hands. I am qualified to do first-class work on light and heavy lathes, planers, milling machines, and grinding machines; I have also had some experience in toolmaking, and am a good vise hand.

As to my character and ability, I refer, by permission, to Mr. John W. Lee, Superintendent, and to Mr. Henry R. Fielding, General Foreman for McIntosh, Seymour & Co., and to Mr. H. E. Deitman, Superintendent of the B. W. Payne & Sons' Engine Co., Elmira, N. Y., with which firm I was formerly employed.

Awaiting an answer, at your convenience, I remain,

Very respectfully yours,

237 State Street.

CHAS. W. BALDWIN.

60. Analysis.—A letter of application for employment should be brief and to the point. If the applicant is already employed, he should state his reasons for desiring a change; if he is not employed, he should state whom he worked for last and why he is not working at the time he writes his letter. In many cases, the age of the applicant is a matter of serious consideration; hence, as a rule, he should state his age. The applicant should state what experience he has had in the particular line of work for which he seeks employment. As a general rule, references are more valuable than letters of recommendation; consequently, the applicant should obtain permission to refer to his previous employers. Any other reference is undesirable in cases like that outlined in the above letter. Let us see how Mr. Baldwin has fulfilled our requirements.

Mr. Baldwin is employed with McIntosh, Seymour & Co., of Auburn, N. Y., a firm well known throughout the United States as builders of high-grade automatic cut-off shaft governor engines. He has been employed with this firm for seven years, during the last three of which he has been one of their assistant foremen. He is a good machinist himself, and has worked in other machine shops, one of which is that of B. W. Payne & Sons, of Elmira, N. Y., who build the

same general class of engines as McIntosh, Seymour & Co. On account of the state of his wife's health, Mr. Baldwin decides that it would be best to move to some place having a more suitable climate, and therefore writes to The Buckeye Engine Co., Salem, Ohio, a firm engaged in the same line of business as McIntosh, Seymour & Co.

Mr. Baldwin begins his letter by stating his reasons for changing employers. He writes that his wife has poor health, and leaves it to be inferred that this is his only reason for leaving the employ of McIntosh, Seymour & Co., as is really the case. He does not waste any words; he does not tell of the numerous conferences that they have had with their physician—all these are private matters and are of no interest whatever to The Buckeye Engine Co.

In the next sentence, he states the kind of a situation he desires, and he writes in a straightforward manner that indicates that he feels confident of his ability to fill either position satisfactorily. It will be noticed that neither here nor in any other part of the letter does he write something like this: "Should you desire to accept my services, I am certain that I can fill either position to your entire satisfaction." Such remarks are wholly unnecessary and tend to weaken the force of the letter. The fact that he has worked for the same firm for seven years, for the last three as assistant foreman, and is leaving of his own accord, is sufficient. A man is always expected to do his work to the best of his ability, and there is no reason for his bragging about what it is taken for granted he will do. Note also that of the two positions mentioned, the higher one is named first. This is a point worthy of careful consideration. Mr. Baldwin has been employed for seven years, with McIntosh, Seymour & Co., on the same general class of work as that done by the firm he is writing to, and, previous to that, for some time with B. W. Payne & Sons. He feels certain that he can fill the position of foreman or assistant foreman in the machine shop of The Buckeye Engine Co., and hence he names the higher position first, leaving it to be inferred that while he could fill the position of foreman, and desires such a position,

he would, on account of the necessity of being obliged to leave Auburn, accept a position as machinist, and take his chances of being promoted afterwards to be foreman or assistant foreman. If he had written to some firm engaged in a different line of business, as, for example, The Latrobe Steel Works, Latrobe, Pa., it would have been better for him to have reversed the order and named the lower position first; for, if he had named the higher position first, it would have created the impression in the mind of the person reading his letter that he was of that variety of mankind who "know it all," and would have weakened very much the other good qualities that were displayed in his letter. By naming the lower position first, it would show him to be a modest man, but one who had confidence in his own ability, and was willing to work for a while in a subordinate position and trust that his employer would observe his work and promote him to a higher position, as soon as it became evident that he was familiar with the work as done in the shops at Latrobe. It depends altogether upon circumstances, whether the higher position should be named first or the lower.

In these two sentences, which form the first paragraph of the letter, Mr. Baldwin has stated why he wants to change his situation and has named the position that he desires to fill with The Buckeye Engine Co. He now very naturally states his qualifications, and his reasons for thinking that he can fill the position he is applying for, and begins with a new paragraph. It is quite customary now for employers to ask applicants for positions their ages, and he begins the second paragraph by stating his age. He then states how long he has been employed in the shop of McIntosh, Seymour & Co. This is an important point; if a man stays for a long while in the employ of a company, and particularly of a company as well known as McIntosh, Seymour & Co., it is strong presumptive evidence that his work has been satisfactory to the firm, and it is reasonable to suppose that his work would be equally satisfactory to his new employers. This impression is greatly strengthened by the fact that Mr.

Baldwin was promoted to the position of assistant foreman, and that he held that position for three years, and could hold it longer, but was obliged to leave on account of his wife's health. It will be noticed that he does not merely state that he was assistant foreman, but he also states exactly what his duties were; viz., he had charge of the lathe and planer hands. This is another important statement, for a prospective employer also desires to know exactly what an applicant for a position in his shop has done previously. If Mr. Baldwin had merely stated that he had held the position of assistant foreman, he would have left The Buckeye Engine Co. in doubt as to what his duties had been. He might have had charge of the boring machines, he might have had charge of the floor hands, he might have had charge of the tool room, or he might have had charge of the erecting department; but, by stating exactly what his duties had been, The Buckeye Engine Co. are better able to judge whether they can offer him a position as one of their foremen, or whether they prefer to employ him as a journeyman machinist.

The first sentence of the second paragraph is really a statement of Mr. Baldwin's special qualifications for a position as foreman. The next sentence not only adds somewhat to the list given in the first sentence, but also gives his qualifications for a position as journeyman machinist. Without doing any boasting, Mr. Baldwin states that he can do first-class work on light and heavy lathes, planers, milling machines, and grinding machines. It will be noticed that he mentions both light and heavy lathes. This is an important statement, because a machinist might be able to do first-class work on a light lathe and not be able to handle a heavy lathe. In the next clause he modestly states that he has had experience in toolmaking, and that he is a good vise hand. He might be a first-class toolmaker and a first-class vise hand, but whether he is or whether his experience in these directions has been somewhat limited, or not, it is better, perhaps, for him to word his letter as he has done. It is always well not to try to claim too much. If The Buckeye

Engine Co. wish to know what experience he has had in toolmaking or in work at the bench, they will ask him; then he can state exactly what experience he has had in either of these two branches of machinists' work, and he will create a better impression than if he made himself out to be a first-class workman in all three departments.

Having stated his qualifications, he now gives his references as to character and ability, and naturally begins a new paragraph. He refers to the two men in the employ of McIntosh, Seymour & Co. that are best qualified to express an opinion in regard to his character and ability—the superintendent and the general foreman—and, at the same time, he takes advantage of the opportunity to inform The Buckeye Engine Co. that he has worked for B. W. Payne & Sons, and refers to their superintendent. When giving a reference, it is always best, when possible, to refer to the person that is immediately over you. A reference to a high official of the company is seldom satisfactory; as he rarely comes in direct contact with the employees, but issues his orders through the heads of departments, any recommendation that he might give would, in all probability, be due to inquiry of the superintendent or general foreman. Hence, it is always better to refer to the superintendent or general foreman, direct.

Note the wording of the closing paragraph. Mr. Baldwin desires a reply to his letter, and he words his request very delicately. He is in the position of a person asking a favor; hence, instead of saying, "Please reply at your earliest convenience," which would be in the nature of a command, he writes, "Awaiting a reply, at your convenience"—a respectful way of saying the same thing. The form, "Please reply at your earliest convenience," would be correct for The Buckeye Engine Co. to use in reply to Mr. Baldwin's letter, but it would be considered somewhat impertinent for Mr. Baldwin to use it in his letter. A person asking a favor has no right to demand, and but little right to request; and, in any case, the request should be so worded as to leave it entirely optional with the person to whom the request is made, whether he grants it or not.

The complimentary close, "Very respectfully yours," seems to be perfectly correct; "Very sincerely yours," or "Very truly yours," would carry an air of too great familiarity. "Respectfully yours" is a little too abrupt, and creates the impression that the writer was in very much of a hurry to finish his letter; but "Very respectfully yours" is in keeping with the remainder of the letter and is a dignified close.

Notice that Mr. Baldwin gives his street and number at the close of his letter. This may be given either at the end of a letter or at the beginning, as the writer prefers. If the letter takes up more than one page of writing, it would be better, perhaps, to give the street and number at the head of the letter; but it is merely a matter of taste which form is used.

The composition of the body of the letter shows that the applicant has a good command of language and is a man of education. It is not necessary, therefore, for the writer to make a specific statement in regard to his educational qualifications.

The diction of the letter is excellent. The words chosen express precisely the meaning they are intended to, and the few technical words, such as "lathes," "planers," etc., are perfectly familiar to anyone likely to be connected with The Buckeye Engine Co. Even in the phrase "Awaiting an answer, at your convenience," the writer uses the proper word *answer* instead of the incorrect, though frequently used, word *reply*. We *reply* to a statement, an argument, or accusation, and *answer* (not *reply* to) a question or a letter.

The sentences are clear and grammatically correct; they also possess to a greater or less degree the qualities of unity, force, and ease. In the second paragraph, for example, unity is secured by making a sentence of the first statement, "I am thirty-six years of age." If we combine the first two sentences, thus: "I am thirty-six years of age and have been employed, etc.," we introduce two prominent ideas into one sentence, and thus violate the principle of unity. The last sentence in the second paragraph might have been divided

into two sentences, the first ending with the words "grinding machines." The separation of the two statements by a semicolon, however, seems to make the transition from one to the other less abrupt than when a period is used and each statement forms a separate sentence.

The division of the letter into paragraphs is satisfactory. The first paragraph deals with the reason that impels Mr. Baldwin to seek a new situation. Note that the connective "therefore" joins the second sentence of the paragraph to the first sentence. The second paragraph has for its subject the qualifications of the writer for the position sought; and the third paragraph, which consists of a single sentence, gives the references. Each paragraph therefore has a single leading subject.

The style of expression is simple, direct, and respectful, as it always should be in letters of this character. Nothing could be more out of place than ornamental or flowery language or a verbose form of statement in a letter of application.

The punctuation of the letter follows the established rules. In the heading and address, the items are separated by commas. The salutation "Gentlemen" is followed by a colon; a comma might have been used, but the colon is more formal. Periods appear in their proper places; viz., at the end of the heading, the address, and the signature, after each abbreviation, and at the end of each sentence. In the body of the letter commas are used to set off parenthetical words or phrases, as "therefore" in the second sentence and "by permission" in the third paragraph; to set off elements in apposition, as "Superintendent" in apposition with "Mr. John W. Lee," "General Foreman, etc." in apposition with "Mr. H. E. Deitman." Commas are used also after the words "lathes," "planers," and "milling machines" to mark the omission of conjunctions. According to the custom of the best writers, the third comma is required though the conjunction, *and*, is present.

The proper names throughout the letter begin with capital letters, as do also the first words of the several sentences.

In the address, each word of the firm name begins with a capital; and in the third paragraph the titles "Superintendent" and "General Foreman" are properly capitalized.

61. The Buckeye Engine Co., to verify the statements made by Mr. Baldwin and to inform themselves more fully in regard to his character and ability as a machinist, send the following letter of inquiry to Mr. John W. Lee:

SALEM, OHIO, May 27, 1899.

MR. JOHN W. LEE,
Superintendent,
McIntosh, Seymour & Co.,
Auburn, N. Y.

Dear Sir:—Mr. Chas. W. Baldwin writes that the state of his wife's health obliges him to leave Auburn. He applies for employment and refers us to you and to your Mr. Henry R. Fielding.

We shall be pleased to have your opinion of Mr. Baldwin's character, experience, and ability.

Very truly yours,
THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.

This letter of inquiry is characterized by the direct, concise style that is always appropriate in business correspondence. The writer introduces in his first sentence the leading topic—Mr. Baldwin's application. The object of The Buckeye Engine Co. in writing this letter is to obtain information concerning their applicant, and nothing is to be gained by veiling this object with a wordy introduction.

Having stated in the first paragraph that Mr. Baldwin has applied for employment and has referred to Mr. Lee, the writer in the second paragraph respectfully and courteously asks Mr. Lee's opinion of Mr. Baldwin. The last sentence has a close enough connection with what precedes to be included in the same paragraph. As the letter is short, however, its appearance is improved by making two paragraphs instead of one.

The recognition in the address of Mr. Lee's position as superintendent is a mark of respect worthy of mention. The complimentary close, "Very truly yours," is quite

correct considering the relation of the writer to the recipient. It is perfectly respectful and sufficiently formal.

No special comment need be made upon the punctuation and capitalization of the letter.

62. The following is Mr. John W. Lee's answer:

AUBURN, N. Y., May 30, 1899.

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.,
Salem, Ohio.

Gentlemen:

I beg to acknowledge the receipt of your esteemed favor of the 27th inst. in regard to Mr. Chas. W. Baldwin's application for employment.

Mr. Baldwin had full permission to use my name in his letter of application to you. The reason he assigns for his proposed change of residence is correct. His wife's health is in such a condition that a change of residence is imperative.

Mr. Baldwin is a gentleman of unimpeachable character; he stands well with this firm and with the best classes in this community. He is an excellent machinist and has been in our employ seven years, during the last three of which he has been an assistant foreman. During his whole time with us he has given perfect satisfaction.

I feel safe, therefore, in commending Mr. Baldwin to your favorable consideration.

Very truly yours,
JOHN W. LEE, Supt.

I take pleasure in endorsing the above letter.

HENRY R. FIELDING,
General Foreman.

Mr. Lee's answer to The Buckeye Engine Co.'s letter of inquiry quite properly opens with a reference to that letter. This reference recalls the subject of the original letter, so that it will not be necessary for the reader of Mr. Lee's answer to refresh his memory with the copy of the letter to Mr. Lee.

The points in the inquiry are answered in detail. First, Mr. Lee verifies Mr. Baldwin's statements that the state of his wife's health demands a change of residence and that Mr. Baldwin had a right to use his name as a reference. He then certifies to Mr. Baldwin's character, experience, and

ability, as requested in the last paragraph of the letter of inquiry.

It is to be noted that Mr. Lee's statements have a positive tone and are specific in their nature. "Mr. Baldwin is a gentleman of unimpeachable character," "He is an excellent machinist," "he has given perfect satisfaction"; these assertions are strong and unequivocal and cannot fail to impress The Buckeye Engine Co. If Mr. Lee had written something like this, "Mr. Baldwin *seems* to be a gentleman and I *think* he will prove satisfactory to you," the firm addressed would feel that Mr. Lee hesitates to fully commit himself, and that though Mr. Baldwin might prove successful in a new position, he might, on the other hand, prove to be a failure. The good effect of Mr. Lee's positive assertions is increased by the last sentence, "I feel safe," etc. This is equivalent to an assertion on Mr. Lee's part that he will stake his reputation for veracity and good judgment on Mr. Baldwin's success in case The Buckeye Engine Co. sees fit to employ him.

Mr. Lee's letter is an example of what the painstaking, studious mechanic can achieve in letter writing. The sentences are clear and correct, the diction is good, and good judgment is exhibited in the division of the matter into paragraphs. The style is direct and concise, but courteous and respectful.

63. Having received Mr. Lee's answer and also an answer to a letter of inquiry to Mr. H. E. Deitman, The Buckeye Engine Co. write Mr. Baldwin as follows:

SALEM, OHIO, June 2, 1899.

MR. CLAS W. BALDWIN,
257 State St.,
Albany, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

Your letter of the 24th ult. has received due consideration. We will state, in answer, that we are prepared to offer you a position as assistant foreman in our shops.

Write when we may expect you here.

Truly yours,

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.

The following is Mr. Baldwin's answer:

AUBURN, N. Y., June 5, 1899.

THE BUCKEYE ENGINE CO.,
Salem, Ohio.

Gentlemen:

I thank you for your favorable consideration of my application.
I will be in Salem by the 10th inst.

Very truly yours, -

CHAS. W. BALDWIN.

These letters require little comment. The Buckeye Engine Co. in their letter to Mr. Baldwin simply state that they have given his application due consideration. This implies that they have made the inquiries they have thought necessary, and it is not necessary for them to tell Mr. Baldwin whether they have written to his references.

Mr. Baldwin says all that is required in two short sentences. In the first sentence he thanks his prospective employers in a dignified and respectful manner. He is neither gushing nor effusive in his thanks. In the second sentence he answers the indirect question asked in The Buckeye Engine Co.'s letter in as few words as possible. The two sentences are in no way connected, and the second forms, therefore, a separate paragraph.

64. We submit another letter of application for the guidance of the student.

BATTLE CREEK, MICH.,
June 30, 1899.

MR. FRANKLIN P. JUDSON,
Chairman of the Board of Education,
Jackson, Mich.

Dear Sir:

Kindly permit me to offer myself as a candidate for the position of principal in the Jackson high school, which I am informed is now vacant.

The following is a brief statement of my educational qualifications and experience in teaching: I graduated at the University of Michigan in 1890, and spent one additional year there in advanced study. Since leaving the University in 1891, I have been engaged continuously in teaching the natural sciences, mathematics, history, and English. For the

last two years I have taught physics and chemistry in the Battle Creek high school.

In regard to the character of my work, the enclosed testimonials will doubtless be of more value to you than any statements I might make in my own behalf.

Should you desire a personal interview, I shall be glad to present myself at such time and place as your convenience may dictate.

I am very respectfully,

Your obedient servant,

JAMES S. REED.

LETTERS OF INTRODUCTION.

65. A letter of introduction should be given only after the fullest consideration, the writer having due regard not only for himself and the person introduced, but also for the interests and feelings of the person to whom the letter of introduction is addressed.

A business letter of introduction should always be presented by the bearer in person ; and care should be taken to present it at a time when it will cause least inconvenience to the person addressed.

LETTER OF INTRODUCTION.

CINCINNATI, O., Oct. 11, 1898.

E. B. ELLIOT, Esq.,
Montreal, Can.

Friend Elliot :

This letter will be handed to you by Mr. Henry Osborne, of this city, who visits Canada for the benefit of his health, and intends also to look after some business interests in the vicinity of Montreal. I sincerely commend him to your consideration and trust that you will make his stay, while in your city, pleasant as well as profitable.

My friend Osborne is worthy of your highest regard, and any courtesies, business or social, that you may show him will be greatly appreciated by

Your sincere friend,

WILLIAM E. SAFFORD.

66. *Analysis.* -This is a well constructed and carefully worded letter of introduction. Mr. Safford is a lifelong friend of Mr. Elliot. They had been associated in financial enterprises, and their families had mingled in the most intimate social intercourse. Under these circumstances,

Mr. Safford would be very careful in introducing a third party to Mr. Elliot. The letter shows his care in this respect.

Usually a letter of introduction written from one business man to another is strictly a business letter and carries with it no social obligations. The recipient of such a letter will feel bound to render the bearer assistance in a business way, but need not necessarily extend to him the hospitality of his house nor introduce him to friends and acquaintances. The letter under consideration, however, may be regarded as a *mixed* business and social letter. Mr. Safford, feeling sure that his friend Mr. Osborne will prove congenial socially to Mr. Elliot and his family, does not hesitate to request social as well as business courtesies in his friend's behalf.

A letter of introduction should always be brief, because it is embarrassing for the bearer to wait while a long letter is being read. The letter before us fulfils this requirement ; it is reasonably short yet contains all essential points.

The expression of esteem, "My friend Osborne is worthy of your highest regard," is well chosen. The mere fact that Mr. Safford introduces Mr. Osborne at all implies that the latter is a person worthy of regard. While it is appropriate to make a modest commendation of this character, it would be in as bad taste to launch into extravagant praise in a written introduction as in a personal introduction.

The rhetorical construction of the letter exhibits no points that require special comment. The three sentences in the body of the letter are somewhat long, but they are perfectly clear. The first two sentences properly constitute a paragraph, being closely connected ; and the last sentence is given a separate paragraph.

It will be noted that the last sentence is completed by the complimentary close, "Your sincere friend," which is the object of the preposition "by," the last word of the body. While this form is much used, many writers object to it, and prefer to complete the last sentence in the body of the letter and follow it with the usual complimentary close, "Yours sincerely" or "Yours truly."

The punctuation of the letter follows established usage.

The items of the heading and address are separated by commas, and all abbreviations are followed by periods. The salutation is properly followed by a colon. The relative clause "who visits, etc." in the first sentence, and the phrase "while in your city" in the second sentence, are set off by commas. In the last sentence the comma after the word "regard" separates the clauses of the compound sentence, and the two other commas set off the expression "business or social," which is out of its natural order. All the sentences are followed by periods. Observe that in the last sentence the closing period is that following the signature.

All proper names are capitalized, as they should be, and each sentence begins with a capital letter.

SOCIAL LETTERS.

LETTERS OF CONGRATULATION.

67. Letters of congratulation are those tendering felicitations on some success achieved by a friend. Trench, "On the Study of Words," declares: "When I 'congratulate' a person (congratulator) I declare that I am a sharer in his joy, that what has rejoiced him, has rejoiced also me."

The style of a letter of congratulation should be hearty and joyous. There should be no hint of envy or jealousy, and the letter should contain nothing that might have a tendency to dampen the joy of the recipient. Anything disagreeable, and, in particular, any advice, should be reserved for another letter.

Usually a letter of congratulation is brief, sometimes merely a message by telegraph.

LETTER OF CONGRATULATION

GALESBURG, ILL., April 20, 1899.

HONORABLE HENRY CLAY EVANS,
Memphis, Tenn.

My dear Sir:

Word has just reached me that you have been elected to the honorable and responsible office of Mayor of Memphis.

It is some years since we last met; but as a friend of the long-past but unforgotten days of boyhood, I feel certain that you have fully developed all those fine qualities of which your youth gave such abundant promise, and have proved yourself worthy of your blood and family traditions and, above all, of your American citizenship.

May your administration of the affairs of Memphis be all that its best citizens, irrespective of party, can desire; and may your election as chief magistrate of that respectable city be the stepping stone to higher honors and to broader spheres of usefulness in your state and country.

Your friend of old and today,

M. CLANCY.

68. Analysis.—The foregoing is a letter of congratulation containing all that such letters should express. There is no undue familiarity in the opening lines—there is nothing save a simple, unostentatious statement of fact. The second paragraph refers with dignity, delicacy, and tenderness to the friendship of boyhood days and pays tribute to qualities manifested by Mr. Evans even in those early days. The third and closing paragraph extends, in fitting language, hearty good wishes to the newly elected Mayor.

One commendable feature of this letter is that the writer delicately abstains from unduly thrusting himself forward into the notice of his friend. He does not begin with an *I*, but opens with the modest clause “Word has just reached me.” It is always in better taste to begin a letter, or, in fact, a sentence, with some other word than with the pronoun *I*. A letter too freely sprinkled with *I*'s gives the impression that the writer attaches undue importance to his thoughts and actions. Of course there are cases in which the *I* may properly occur quite frequently, as for example in a letter of application, in which the applicant in relating his education and experience must naturally talk about himself. It is a safe rule, however, to keep this word *I* in the background as much as possible; at best, it will appear often enough.

Another feature of the letter is the evident sincerity of the compliments in the second paragraph and the good wishes in the last paragraph. Two things to be avoided in

letters of congratulation are compliments that savor of flattery and extravagant expressions of joy. In the present letter how inappropriate it would be for the writer, who has not met Mr. Evans for some years, to make use of such expressions as "I was overjoyed at your success," or "I was pleased beyond measure, etc."; again how inappropriate would be such a flattering eulogy as the following: "Your transcendent genius for state affairs, your unimpeachable integrity and unswerving devotion to duty, and your well known executive ability combined to make you an ideal candidate for the high office to which you have been elected." Mr. Evans would rightly regard such an expression as most offensive flattery, and would not for a moment regard it as sincere.

It is to be observed that in the last paragraph the writer does not stop with the word "honors." Had he done so, the sentence would seem to convey the idea that the honor of office was Mr. Evans's chief motive for accepting the Mayor's chair. By adding the last phrase "and to broader spheres of usefulness, etc.," the writer delicately implies that Mr. Evans's prime motive is to be of service to his city, state, or country.

Besides the merits of modesty and sincerity, the letter exhibits the dignity befitting the relation of the writer and recipient. The two gentlemen are evidently not young, and have not been intimate socially for some years. Under these circumstances any attempt at familiarity would be out of place. Under other circumstances, of course, a letter of congratulation may be familiar and brisk; for example, a young man congratulating a college chum might write. "Well done, old fellow! Give me a handshake in honor of your brilliant success." As in all other letters the degree of dignity and formality is regulated by the relation of the parties.

Turning to the rhetorical construction, we note in the first place that the diction is correct and dignified, as befits the subject of the letter. There are a number of long words, as "traditions," "citizenship," "administrator," and

"magistrate," but they are entirely appropriate in the places in which they are used, and are those that any writer would naturally employ under similar circumstances. The diction is marked by both purity and propriety. In the whole letter there is not a word of questionable character—not one that is obsolete, newly coined, provincial, or foreign. Further, each word is used in its generally understood sense and conveys the meaning intended. An instance of precision in diction is shown in the word "office" in the first sentence. Many writers would incorrectly write "position of Mayor of Memphis." In general, *office* refers to employment having connection with government. Public servants hold *office*; employes of private concerns hold *situations* or *positions*.

The three sentences in the body of the letter fulfil the primary requisites of the good sentence; viz., clearness and correctness; they also possess unity and ease. Observe the clearness and smoothness of the last two sentences, despite their considerable length.

The letter, containing, as it does, three distinct parts—the announcement, the compliments, and the good wishes—is naturally divided into three paragraphs, each containing a single sentence.

In the arrangement of the parts of the letter the writer exercises good taste. In the address, the name is properly preceded by the title "Honorable" unabbreviated. The abbreviation "Hon." would perhaps indicate a lack of respect; on the other hand, it would be altogether too formal in a letter of congratulation to write the address as follows:

To the Honorable
HENRY CLAY EVANS,
Memphis, Tenn.

The complimentary close, "Your friend of old and today," is happily chosen, and is appropriate to the reference in the second sentence to "the long-past but unforgotten days of boyhood."

The punctuation of the heading, address, and conclusion calls for no comment. The first sentence requires no mark

except the period at the end. The second sentence is somewhat long and is made up of phrases and clauses that demand separation. The first short clause is coordinate with the last clause; and since the latter is further subdivided by commas, the two clauses are separated by the semicolon following the word "met." The comma after "boyhood" sets off the preceding phrase, which is out of its natural order; the comma after "promise" separates the two parts of the compound predicate, and those after "and" and "all" set off the parenthetical expression "above all." In the last sentence the coordinate clauses are separated by the semicolon after "desire"; and the commas in the first clause set off the parenthetical expression "irrespective of party." The sentences are followed by periods, though some writers might prefer an exclamation point after the last sentence.

Little need be said regarding the use of capital letters. All the proper names and the first words of the sentences begin with capital letters, as they, of course, should. The word "Mayor" being an official title is begun with a capital letter, and so is the word "American," an adjective derived from the proper name America. Observe that the word "dear" in the salutation does *not* begin with a capital letter.

69. As an additional example we give a less formal letter congratulating a friend on his appointment to a university fellowship:

COLUMBUS, OHIO, June 13, 1899.

DEAR JACK,

I have just this moment heard of your appointment to the coveted fellowship. Good for you, my boy! I congratulate you with all my heart. This success, I am confident, is only the first of many that are awaiting you. The appointment is well deserved, and is a fitting sequel to your four years of hard and faithful work in the university. It will give you an excellent opportunity to pursue those advanced studies that you so delight in.

With continued good wishes, I am,

Your sincere friend,

EDWARD HOLDEN.

LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE.

70. A letter of condolence is one written to a friend that has suffered some loss or bereavement. Such a letter is one of the most difficult of all to write. It requires good taste and sympathetic feeling. In offering condolence, carefully avoid recalling to the sufferer the details of the case, and do not attempt to argue on the subject. Reasons that should appeal to the head cannot affect the heart. Of course, never insinuate that your friend is in the least directly or indirectly to blame: What is most needed at such a time is sympathy. Endeavor to show your friend, as much as is possible in words, that you are ready and anxious to share his grief; your sympathetic feeling will thus lessen the sorrow.

LETTER OF CONDOLENCE.

PITTSBURG, PA., Jan. 13, 1893.

MY DEAR CHARLES,

Your letter of the 11th conveying the sad tidings of your father's death reached me this morning. I hasten, my dear friend, to tender you my heartfelt sympathy in your sorrow. As you well know, your father and I were in early life close associates. It was during this period of intimacy that I came to realize the gentleness and kindness of his nature, and learned to love and esteem him. I can assure you, Charles, that his death is to me personally a source of sincere sorrow.

Your relations with your father were, I know, most cordial and affectionate. To you he was a devoted father; and you in return have been a faithful and dutiful son. The recollection that you have ever been to him a source of pride and joy must at the present sad moment be a consolation to you.

With deepest regard, I am, dear Charles,

Your sincere friend,

ALFRED WEBBER.

71. Analysis.—This letter is written to a son upon the death of his father by a personal friend of both father and son. It fulfils quite well the requisites of the ideal letter of condolence.

In the first place, the letter gives the impression of sincere grief and fellow suffering on the part of the writer. The son to whom it is written must feel that his sorrow is shared

by his father's old friend. Such a letter is always grateful to the sorrowing recipient. The reference to the early intimacy of the writer with the departed, and the mention of the good qualities of the latter are appropriate. It is a source of consolation to know that the virtues of one who is gone are recognized and appreciated. Another commendable feature of the letter is the reference to the affectionate relation of the father and son, and the assurance to the son that he has been a pride and a joy to his father. Such an assurance, provided, of course, it be true, must be a source of consolation.

It is to be noted that the writer does not try to persuade his friend that the event is all for the best and that he should not on that account feel any grief. Nothing is more out of place in a letter of condolence than an attempt to submit the matter to the cold logic of argument. Never try to convince a mourning and grief-stricken friend that it is his duty to submit cheerfully to his lot.

The letter, as a letter of condolence should be, is brief. All that such a letter should ever contain is a sincere expression of sympathy, sometimes a reference to the merits of the deceased, and perhaps a reference to the Divine Comforter. It need scarcely be said that a letter of condolence should contain no mention of affairs not connected with the event that calls it forth.

In structure, the letter of condolence does not differ essentially from other letters, except that the introduction never contains the formal address, but consists simply of the salutation, as "Dear Charles" or "Dear Friend." Even the salutation is often omitted.

In the letter under consideration, the sentences are as a rule quite short. A careful analysis will show that they are grammatically correct and clear. The body of the letter is divided into two paragraphs. The leading idea of the second paragraph—the devotion of the son to the father—is of sufficient importance to justify a new paragraph.

The functions of the various marks of punctuation the student will readily discover by reference to *Punctuation*

and Capitalization. There is nothing in connection with the use of capital letters that demands special attention.

72. In addition to the letter just analyzed, we give the following touching and beautiful letter of condolence written by Thomas Gray to Mr. Mason. It is worthy of the student's most careful perusal. Other letters of condolence will be given in another section among the model letters.

March 28, 1767.

I break in upon you at a moment when we least of all are permitted to disturb our friends only to say that you are daily and hourly present to my thoughts. If the worst is not yet past you will neglect and pardon me; but if the last struggle be over; if the poor object of your long anxieties be no longer sensible to your kindness or to her own sufferings, allow me (at least in idea, for what could I do, were I present, more than this?) to sit by you in silence, and pity from my heart, not her who is at rest, but you who lose her. May He who made us, the Master of our pleasures and of our pains, preserve and support you! Adieu.

LETTERS OF DESCRIPTION.

73. In a letter of description the writer strives to give by means of words a picture of the object or objects he is describing. A description is a word picture.

LETTER OF DESCRIPTION.

WASHINGTON, D. C., March 9, '99.

DEAR CLARA,

You asked me in your last letter to tell you about the White House and its occupants. I am going, therefore, to reserve all other things for a later epistle and devote this entire letter to a description of one interesting corner of our Presidential mansion.

It may be news to you that the Presidential apartment in the White House is practically nothing more nor less than a seven-room flat, tucked away in a corner of the massive structure like a cosy corner in a Turkish bazaar, and insuring to President and Mrs. McKinley all the privacy and comfort of an unpretentious New York flat. Tourists may prowl about the corridors and office seekers may howl outside the doors, but no man or woman may penetrate these sacred precincts without showing exceptionally good cause.

The Presidential flat is on the second floor of the White House, and in the right wing over the East Room. It consists of the President's

study; his bedroom; a library; a guest room, usually occupied by visiting relatives; Mrs. McKinley's bedroom; a kitchen, and a wide private corridor, which is a favorite lounging place for the family and their guests. This corridor is the most pretentious feature of the apartment. It is carpeted with thick velvet carpets its walls are covered with historic paintings, and its many chairs and divans are luxuriously inviting. Potted palms fill the windows and fresh-cut flowers are placed every day on the desk and the tables.

With the exception of the library, the rooms are very simple. Nothing could be less ornate than the President's study, in which family portraits stare unsmilingly at stiff-backed chairs ranged in an uncompromising circle around the wall. But the atmosphere is brightened by Mrs. McKinley's gentle presence. Here she likes to sew while the President writes or thinks out some knotty problem, sitting in his favorite attitude at his desk, his feet digging into a worn ottoman, his head thrown back against his chair, and his hands drumming restlessly on the polished mahogany.

The President's bedroom is equally simple. Soft rugs cover the floor, but the walls are almost bare of ornament and the old-fashioned chairs are grimly unyielding. One modern innovation is a luxurious Turkish divan, on which the President has never yet stretched his weary length, but which he hopes to try some future time when a divan will not seem so subtle an irony.

The guest chamber, or as it is known among visitors, the "green bedroom," is one to inspire awe in the bravest heart. It is a vast room in which its two small brass bedsteads, standing side by side, look like white oases in a green desert. A table with a reading lamp stands stiffly in the center of the room and several chairs lend variety to the scene. A fat pin cushion and a photograph of Mrs. McKinley occupy the dressing table and are the only ornaments the place affords.

Mrs. McKinley's bedroom is a bright, glad contrast to this. She has carried out her own ideas in its decoration, with the result that the room is the prettiest and most cheerful in the White House. In consideration of her delicate health, the President's wife is never alone. Some one is near her night and day and the pleasant bedroom is the scene of some of the jolliest gatherings in the Executive Mansion.

In the library of this White House flat Mrs. McKinley receives her friends, reads her favorite books, and does her fancy work. To this room the President comes for repose and rest when the army scandal and the Philippine situation have goaded him to frenzy. When occasion permits, the family meals are served in the library, which readily lends itself to that innovation. This pleases Mrs. McKinley; and the President, too, is glad to dine quietly with his family when it is possible. Even under the best conditions it is not often practicable, for this servant of the people is relentlessly pursued during these trying times by public demands that interfere with a quiet home life.

Nevertheless, his little home is there, and he is monarch of it. Like the tenants of other American flats, he meets strangers in the halls and on the stairs, and these strangers are of an unusually obtrusive and persistent type. But he has his little flat to fly to, and only the most hardened office seeker upon seeing him hurrying to it at the close of the day would venture to turn him aside from this haven of rest and peace.

There, Clara, you now have an idea of one little piece of the White House. In a later letter I may describe to you some other features of this famous mansion.

Affectionately yours,

AMELIA AIKEN.

74. Analysis.—This interesting and neatly written epistle is a model letter of description. It is a letter from one lady to another, conveying just the kind of information womankind like to receive.

The opening paragraph is an introduction stating the writer's intention to give a description of a portion of the Presidential mansion. That such an introduction is essential in a letter is obvious. Should the letter begin with the second paragraph, the reader would for a moment wonder what called up the subject of the White House. Such an opening would be painfully abrupt. As it is, the introductory paragraph leads naturally to the description and prepares the reader's mind for it.

In the second paragraph, the writer introduces the Presidential flat as the subject of the description. The few words of this paragraph give the reader a vivid idea of the privacy and coziness of the apartment. Note the life in the first sentence; how much more expressive the statement "is nothing more nor less than a seven-room flat," etc., than one like this: "The Presidential apartment is a suite of seven rooms situated in one corner of the White House."

The third paragraph enumerates the seven rooms and gives a description of the corridor. The following paragraphs are devoted to descriptions of the other rooms of interest.

One of the requirements of a good description is that it should begin with some kind of a comprehensive statement

or plan to serve as a sort of background for the details that are to follow. In this letter, this requisite is furnished in the second paragraph and first part of the third paragraph. Having, in her mind, located this flat in one corner of the White House, the reader is able to form an idea of the relation of each of the rooms to the suite as a whole, and is prepared for a description of the individual rooms.

The description is rendered interesting and vivid by the omission of petty details. Take, for example, the President's study. The clause "family portraits stare unsmilingly at stiff-backed chairs ranged in an uncompromising circle around the wall" gives the reader a mental picture of the room that she would not obtain from such details as the location of doors, the position of the room relative to the corridor or other rooms, the size of the room, etc. Likewise, note the expressiveness of the sentence, "It is a vast room in which its two small brass bedsteads, standing side by side, look like white oases in a green desert." This one sentence gives a better mental picture of the room than would a page of minute detail. The use of figures of speech is sometimes very effective in description. Thus, in the sentence just quoted, the simile "like white oases in a green desert" adds greatly to the effect.

The sentences are pleasing in their variety and ease. Some are short, plain statements, while others are long and well supplied with modifying phrases. Nearly all are loose sentences, the loose form being especially suited to description and narrative. By way of variety, however, several of the short sentences are periodic; as, "With the exception of the library, the rooms are simple," and "In consideration of her delicate health, the President's wife is never alone." It is readily seen that these sentences are more forcible than if arranged in the loose form.

The paragraphing of the letter follows the laws of unity and continuity. Each paragraph is dominated by a leading idea. After the real description is begun, the description of each room is given a separate paragraph; first we have the study, then the President's bedroom, then the guest chamber,

and so on. The continuity between the sentences of each paragraph is well preserved; nowhere will the reader feel a sense of abruptness. Between the separate paragraphs the continuity is sufficiently well established by the rather close connection between the subjects of the paragraphs.

It will be observed that the last paragraph is a sort of conclusion inserted to avoid the abruptness that would be felt if the letter closed with the description. In this respect the function of this paragraph is the same as that of the introductory paragraph.

The arrangement of the parts of the letter demands no comment. The punctuation is in accordance with good usage. The student is advised to go carefully through the letter and determine for himself the office of each period, comma, semicolon, etc.; this he should do in connection with the paper entitled, *Punctuation and Capitalisation*. At the same time he should discover the reason for each capital letter employed.

LETTERS OF NARRATIVE.

75. Narration is a statement of a succession of events in the order of time. A large part of the literature of the world may be classed under "Narration"; thus, *history*, an account of the events in the life of a nation; *biography*, an account of the events of an individual life; *travels*, an account of the experiences of a person in foreign countries; *news*, an account of the daily happenings all over the world; and finally *fiction*, which may be called fictitious biography—all these are examples of narrative composition.

A narrative letter is one in which the prominent feature is a narration of some train of events, such as the particulars of a visit or the details of some incident in which the writer has played a part. The letters of travel that frequently appear in periodicals are chiefly narrative.

76. The following are the leading principles to be observed in writing narrative letters:

Elizabeth Carter to Miss Catherine Talbot. The student will observe how, in the order of their occurrence, the successive events are related; he will also observe the unity of the narration; the story is told to the end without interruption, and no irrelevant topics are introduced.

LONDON, August 9, 1769.

* * * I set out on my city expedition this morning where I met an adventure, which, I believe, you will think more formidable than all the terrors of the Richmond road. I was to call on a person in my way, to accompany me to the South Sea House; and my nearest route was through Newgate. On going up Snow Hill I observed a pretty many people assembled, but did not much regard them, till, as I advanced, I found the crowd thicken, and by the time I was got into the midst of them I heard the dreadful toll of St. Sepulchre's bell and found I was attending an execution. As I do not very well understand the geography of Newgate, I thought if I could push through the postern I should find the coast clear on the other side, but to my utter dismay I found myself in a still greater mob than before, and very little able to make my way through them. Only think of me in the midst of such heat and suffocation, with the danger of having my arms broke, to say nothing of the company by which I was surrounded, with near 100*l* in my pocket. In this exigency I applied to one of the crowd for assistance, and while he was hesitating, another man, who saw my difficulty, very good-naturedly said to me: "Come, madam, I will do my best to get you along." To this volunteer in my service, who was tolerably creditable and clean, considering the corps to which he belonged, I most cordially gave my hand; and without any swearing, or brawling, or bustle whatever, by mere gentle persevering dexterity, he conducted me, I thank God, very safely through. You will imagine that I expressed a sufficient degree of gratitude to my conductor, which I did in the best language I could find; * * *

LETTER WRITING.

(PART 3.)

MODEL LETTERS.

BUSINESS LETTERS.

1. Prefatory Remark.—The model letters presented in the following pages are such as are likely to be required in the exigencies of ordinary business. There are, of course, many other letters that may be demanded by exceptional circumstances, but it is manifestly impossible to include in a limited space a model of every possible variety of business letter. A careful study of the model letters we have chosen should, however, prepare the student to write any business letter that may be required, in a businesslike manner.

LETTERS CONTAINING ENCLOSURES.

2. Under this heading we class letters containing remittances, as checks, drafts, etc. The letters should state what the enclosure is, the amount of the remittance, and the purpose to which the remittance is to be applied.

Various means are employed in making remittances. A bank draft, either New York or Chicago exchange, may be

purchased of any local bank at small cost, and furnishes a safe and convenient means of remittance. Many business firms remit to their correspondents by bank checks. In some cities, however, notably in New York City, the banks charge for collection of checks, and remittance by this means is discouraged. A draft or check should always be made "to order," so that no one except the payee can collect it. If made payable to bearer, it may be collected by any person into whose possession it may fall.

As a rule, banks do not care to issue drafts for small amounts; small remittances are therefore frequently made by post-office or express money order.

Currency or coin should never be enclosed in a letter for transmission through the mails.

AKRON, OHIO, April 6, 1899.

MECHANIC ARTS MAGAZINE,
Scranton, Pa.

Enclosed you will find an express money order for One Dollar (\$1.00) in payment of one year's subscription to "The Mechanic Arts Magazine," beginning with the May number.

Yours respectfully,
M. JONES.

DES MOINES, IA., June 4, 1897.

ODELL, ALLEN & Co.,
St. Paul, Minn.

Sirs:

Enclosed you will find a Chicago draft for Three Hundred Eighty-two and $\frac{1}{100}$ Dollars (\$382 67), payable to your order, to balance our account to date. Kindly send us a receipt.

Yours truly,
ALBERT CUMMINGS & Co.
Per S. H. W.

LETTERS ACKNOWLEDGING RECEIPT OF MONEY.

3. The receipt for a remittance should be returned to the sender without delay, so that he may know that the remittance was received. The receipt may be included in the body of the letter or it may be a formal receipt enclosed

with the letter. It should state the amount of the remittance.

DETROIT, MICH., June 21, 1896.

MR. EDWARD S. BARRY,
Allegan, Mich.

Dear Sir:

We beg to acknowledge with thanks your favor of the 19th inst., enclosing One Hundred Thirty-two Dollars (\$132).

Yours respectfully,

FARRAND, WILLIAMS & Co.

LETTERS OF BUSINESS SOLICITATION.

4. In a letter soliciting custom or business favors of any kind, the writer should be careful to make his statements precise and candid and without exaggeration.

LETTERS SOLICITING ADVERTISING.

ADVERTISING DEPARTMENT

THE CURTIS PUBLISHING COMPANY

The Ladies' Home Journal

The Saturday Evening Post

ADDRESS ALL
COMMUNICATIONS
TO THIS
DEPARTMENT

PHILADELPHIA

May 29, 1899.

MICHIGAN COLLEGE OF MINES,
Houghton, Mich.

We enclose a specimen page from the July number of "The Ladies' Home Journal" to give you an idea of the different sizes and display of Educational advertisements. The August number will go to press June 15th, and the edition will exceed eight hundred thousand copies. These will be distributed among the best homes of America at just the time when the selection of a School or College is under consideration.

If you will send us your announcement at once, we shall be happy to give you the lowest cost of insertion, and to set it in type for approval, if desired.

Very truly yours,

THE CURTIS PUBLISHING COMPANY.
Advertising Department.

PUBLISHERS
SPECIAL
ADVERTISING
AGENTS

FOR COMMERCIAL SUCCESS—
CONSISTENT ADVERTISING
OFFICE OF

PIERCE UNDERWOOD CO.

TELEPHONE MAIN-093
69 DEARBORN STREET

CHICAGO, Jan. 16, 1899.

INTERNATIONAL CORRESPONDENCE SCHOOLS,
Scranton, Pa.

Gentlemen:

We respectfully invite your attention to a few facts in connection with an important item of your annual expense account, with a view of suggesting how that expense may accomplish a greater result than hitherto, or as great a result at less cost. We think our interest in the matter is in a great degree mutual with yours, in that you present an article of special value and general desirability, while we represent a medium of communication through the "Young People's Weekly," with 220,000 of the most prosperous American homes, embracing very nearly 1,000,000 readers where the paper is read, discussed, and passed from hand to hand with the same attention as a monthly magazine, not simply scanned and cast aside like the ordinary newspaper.

Its advertising space is limited to a few columns, rigidly excluding patent medicines and everything of an undesirable nature, the object being to make this portion of our paper as wholesome, attractive, and reliable as its purely literary department.

As a proof of the general interest of the reading public in our paper, we cite the fact that ninety per cent. of the subscriptions come from the able members of the thousands of families in whose homes the "Young People's Weekly" is the most eagerly awaited regular visitor.

The volume of the circulation claimed for the paper we are prepared to substantiate at any time to the satisfaction of any of our patrons. As to the character of that circulation, the literary columns of the paper itself afford the best evidence.

After Feb. 1st, we propose to extend our advertising space to a limited extent, admitting thereto only such advertisements as will consort with the general character of our paper and the character of its readers, thereby enhancing its value alike to its readers and our advertising patrons.

We invite your careful inspection of our special illuminated cover design of our forthcoming Easter edition to be issued April 2d, together with accompanying details as to circulation, rates, etc.

Believing that the appearance of your advertisement in this special

edition would be to our mutual advantage and lead to a continuance of your patronage, we solicit an early advice of your favor.

Very truly yours,

PIERCE UNDERWOOD CO.

Per Pierce Underwood,
Pres. & Treas.

DUNNING LETTERS.

5. Dunning letters should be characterized by moderation, fairness, and firmness. The style of the letter should depend on the circumstances of the case. If the party owing the money is known to be reliable but a little slow in remitting, the letter should be so worded as to imply that payment is merely a favor. On the other hand, if a debt is long past due and the debtor seems inclined to evade payment altogether, the letter may be quite peremptory and may contain a threat of appeal to the law. Such a letter may induce payment where a friendly letter would have no effect. The following are models of dunning letters suitable for various circumstances :

PHILADELPHIA, April 18, 1899.

ALFRED IRWIN & Co.,

Pittsburg, Pa.

Dear Sirs :

In the statement enclosed herewith are repeated the figures of accounts previously rendered, and there appears a balance of \$342.65, of which we should, as we think, naturally have received settlement last month. It will be a favor to us if we may have your remittance by return mail, and all the more if it may be in Philadelphia funds.

Very truly yours,

O. A. JOHNSTONE & Co.

PITTSBURG, May 3, 1897.

MR. JAMES BODINE,

Altoona, Pa.

Dear Sir — We sent you a statement of your account some time ago. As we have heard nothing from you, we conceive it possible that you have overlooked the matter.

A prompt remittance will be appreciated.

Yours respectfully,

MILLER & FUBERG.

NEW YORK, Oct. 7, 1894.

MR. JOHN W. SAMUELS,
New Orange, N. J.

Dear Sir:

We enclose a statement of your account now long past due. In view of your difficulties we wish to make payment as easy as possible, and will be pleased to accept small installments at regular intervals.

Let us, however, hear from you at once.

Yours truly,
M. S. DUFFY & Co.

ST. LOUIS, July 12, 1893.

MR. F. S. TRUE,
Ottumwa, Ia.

Dear Sir:

We have repeatedly written you regarding the payment of your account but have received no acknowledgment of our letters.

While we wish to give you every opportunity for payment, we must insist on an answer to this letter within ten days. If we do not hear from you within that time, we shall be compelled, reluctantly, to give the account to our Attorneys for collection.

The amount is \$97.32.

Yours truly,
SINCLAIR & BUNNELL.

LETTERS OF CENSURE.

6. A letter of censure is an expression of disapproval or blame for adequate cause that is called for in certain regrettable circumstances. Such a letter, while characterized by firmness, should be also marked by fairness, calmness, and dignity.

HARTFORD, CONN., Oct. 13, 1897

MR. ARTHUR E. DORTCH,
Minneapolis, Minn.

Dear Sir:

I must reluctantly call your attention to a decided falling off in the business in which you are representing me in the West. Your recent reports show that the receipts from real-estate sales have diminished materially as compared with last year, and that the receipts from rents are not what they should be. While there may be some valid cause for this state of affairs, I fear that it may be ascribed to a lack of energy

and interest on your part, the more so as all conditions seem to be favorable for a largely increased business in real estate.

I do not wish to do you an injustice, and am inclined to give you every chance to get the business back to its original prosperous condition. If, however, there is no change for the better, I fear that I shall be unable to continue you in your present position.

Yours truly,

S. S. NOBLE.

LETTERS REQUESTING SPECIAL FAVORS.

7. Under this head may be included letters asking for an extension of time on an account, letters asking for a remittance not yet due, etc. An unusual request of this kind should be presented with special care. It is better to make the request at the outset and give the explanation for it afterwards.

FRANKFORT, KY., Jan. 5, 1898.

ELWELL, CARTON & CO.,
Cincinnati, Ohio.

Gentlemen:

May we request you to accept one-half of our account at maturity, the 20th inst., and permit an extension of sixty days on the remainder?

On account of the unprecedented scarcity of money among the farmers, we have for the last two months experienced unusual difficulty in making collections, and are therefore rather cramped for funds to meet coming obligations.

We regret the necessity of this unusual request, but we trust that you will understand the circumstances causing it.

Yours respectfully,

OTIS & CURRAN.

LETTERS OF ANNOUNCEMENT.

8. Letters of announcement are those that contain some specific declaration or convey some special communication.

ST. PAUL, MINN., March 15, 1899.

THE HONORABLE JOHN HALVERSEN,
St. Paul, Minn.

Dear Sir:

It is my privilege to state that I have been appointed to represent in this city and state the Northwestern Colonization Company, of Chicago, Ill.

This Company has acquired title to large tracts of land in Minnesota, the two Dakotas, and Nebraska. This land it proposes to dispose of to bona-fide settlers, to whom it gives substantial aid in erecting necessary buildings and putting in the first crop, giving them ample time and most liberal terms to pay their indebtedness to the Company, which takes a direct and kindly interest in the welfare of each settler and his family.

You have long taken a deep and practical interest in the subject of colonization, and proved yourself a friend of the solid development of the Northwestern States. Your earnestness, sincerity, and success, in this respect, have won you, not only public esteem but the confidence of your fellow citizens generally.

I therefore beg the favor of a personal interview, at your own convenience, that I may have the honor of stating the purposes and presenting the claims of the Northwestern Colonization Company as one of the most powerful and efficient instrumentalities for the development of this important section of the American Republic.

Believe me, Sir,

Yours respectfully,

HENRY OSBORNE.

ANSWER TO THE PRECEDING LETTER.

400 WOODWARD AVENUE,

ST. PAUL, MINN.,

March 16, 1899.

MR. HENRY OSBORNE,

St Paul, Minn.

Sir :

I am pleased to acknowledge receipt of your note, informing me of your appointment to represent the Northwestern Colonization Company in this state and city, and soliciting a personal interview.

Thanks for your attention. I shall be pleased to meet you, at the Merchants' Hotel, tomorrow at 10 o'clock A M. I have already heard favorably of the Northwestern Colonization Company, but I shall be glad to have you state its purposes and present its claims more fully.

Respectfully,

JOHN HALVERSEN.

LETTERS OF RECOMMENDATION.

9. The qualities of a letter of recommendation have been dwelt upon in a previous section. The rules to be observed in writing a letter of recommendation are in brief as follows:

1. Do not recommend an unworthy person at all.
2. State the exact facts; a highly colored letter of recommendation is likely to prove a positive injury to the one in whose favor it is written.
3. If you are recommending a person for a particular situation, dwell on the specific qualifications of the person for that situation rather than upon his character, integrity, etc., though it is of course proper to mention the latter.

Letters of recommendation may be special or general. Special letters are addressed like ordinary letters to a particular person; general letters are addressed "To the public" or "To whom it may concern," etc.

GENERAL LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION.

ATLANTA, GA., March 10, 1898.

TO WHOM IT MAY CONCERN:

Mr. Joseph Shippen has been in our employ as carpet salesman for the last five years. We are pleased to state that he has, by his strict attention to duty, and by his honesty and integrity, won the esteem and confidence of his employers, associates, and customers. It is with regret that we part with Mr. Shippen, who resigns his situation solely on account of failing health.

Respectfully,
ENOCHS & SIMPSON.

SPECIAL LETTER OF RECOMMENDATION.

SYRACUSE, N. Y.,
May 14, 1899.

MR. E. S. WILLIAMS,
Secretary of the Board of Control,
Allegheny, Pa.

Dear Sir:

Mr. Philip J. Allison has informed me that he has applied for the professorship of mathematics in the Allegheny high school, and desires me to write you a word of commendation in his behalf.

I have been closely associated with Mr. Allison for the last three years and have had an excellent opportunity to observe his teaching. Without exaggeration, I may say that he is a most thorough mathematician and a conscientious and inspiring teacher. His work as an instructor in the Syracuse University has been of the highest order, and the school or college that secures his services I shall consider fortunate.

Personally I shall be sorry to lose Mr. Allison's services as my assistant. I, however, heartily wish him the success and advancement he so well deserves, and I take pleasure in commending him to you.

Yours very respectfully,

Professor of Mathematics,
Syracuse University.

LETTERS OF INDORSEMENT.

10. A letter of indorsement introduces an acquaintance of the writer to the person or firm addressed, generally for the purpose of opening an account.

Considerable caution is required in giving a letter of indorsement, as the writer becomes morally if not legally responsible for the agreements of the bearer of the letter.

If a letter of indorsement is given to the person introduced, as is usually the case, it should not be sealed.

PEORIA, ILL., June 8, 1899.

INGALLS & COOPER,
Chicago, Ill.

Gentlemen

The bearer, Mr. Wm. T. Jevons, is making preparations to engage in the boot and shoe business in Joliet, Ill., and visits you to examine your stock of footwear.

We have known Mr. Jevons for some years and can vouch for his integrity and business ability. He starts in business under the most favorable auspices and we are confident that you will find it to your advantage to extend him every reasonable courtesy.

Yours respectfully,

DODGE, FLAHER & Co.

LETTERS OF CREDIT.

11. A letter of credit is one requesting the person addressed to give the bearer credit for a specified sum of money for the payment of which the writer assumes responsibility. A letter of credit is often combined with a letter of introduction. The following is a common form.

MONTGOMERY, ALA.,
June 4, 1894.

S. W. FORD & Co.,
Memphis, Tenn.

Dear Sirs:

Please allow Mr. Edward Buhl, the bearer, credit for such goods as he may select to the amount of One Thousand Dollars (\$1,000). In case Mr. Buhl fails to make payment at maturity, I will be responsible for the account.

You will inform me of the amount for which you give credit, and in case of non-payment notify me at once.

Yours respectfully,
ANDREW HOLCOMB.

Another kind of letter of credit is a letter from a banking house in one country to a similar house in another country directing the payment of certain sums of money to the person in whose favor the letter is written. These letters of credit are much used by travelers. The banks usually have blank forms for them.

Boston, July 1, 1899.

MESSIEURS BARBAUD FRÈRES,
Paris, France.

Gentlemen:

We request that you will have the kindness to furnish Mr. Geo. E. Romaine, of this city, whose signature appears below, with any funds that he may require to the extent of Twenty Thousand Francs, taking his duplicate receipts (one of which you will send us) for any payment made under this credit.

Whatever sum Mr. Romaine may receive you will please endorse on the back of this letter and charge to our account.

Your obedient servants,

THE THIRD NATIONAL BANK.

The signature of

GEO. E. ROMAINE.

President.

LETTERS OF INQUIRY.

12. Letters of inquiry are frequently required in business correspondence. The subject of the inquiry may be the business standing of an individual or firm, the price of goods, the value of some machine or device, or any one of a hundred other things.

PITTSBURG, PA., July 10, 1899.

THE CASHIER
FIRST NATIONAL BANK,
Scranton, Pa.

Dear Sir:

We shall be obliged to you if you will in confidence give us your opinion as to the standing of S. G. Campbell & Co. of your city. Would you consider it safe to extend them credit for \$2,000?

Thanking you in advance for any information you may give us, we are,

Very truly yours,
EWING & MANSFIELD.

FAVORABLE ANSWER.

SCRANTON, PA., July 12, 1899.

EWING & MANSFIELD,
Pittsburg, Pa.

Gentlemen:

In answer to your inquiry of the 10th inst. concerning the firm of S. G. Campbell & Co., I take pleasure in giving you the following information.

This firm is regarded as one of the safest and most conservative in this city in its line of business. It has good connections, excellent facilities for doing business, and so far as we know, is reliable in every way.

Yours truly,

UNFAVORABLE ANSWER.

SCRANTON, PA.,
July 14, 1899.

EWING & MANSFIELD,
Pittsburg, Pa.

Dear Sir: Your inquiry concerning S. G. Campbell & Co. is at hand. In answer we would say that while these people have until now been considered reliable they are at present reported to be in embarrassed circumstances and in a position to meet coming obligations. Everything they have is so less encumbered. Rumors are afloat that their present condition is due to heavy losses they have incurred in speculation. We have investigated these rumors and find them substantially correct.

We feel it our duty to report this firm in an unsatisfactory condition financially, and we should not consider it safe to extend them credit for a large amount.

Yours truly,

MUSKEGON, MICH.,
June 23, 1898.

MR. J. M. JONES,
Secretary Eskridge Mfg. Co.,
Milwaukee, Wis.

Dear Sir:

I am informed that your company has adopted the card-index system both in your business office and drafting room. Will you kindly inform me how this system is working, and state briefly its advantages, if any, over your former systems of indexing addresses and drawings? I am considering seriously the advisability of introducing the card index in my own office and I shall be grateful to you for any information or suggestions.

Yours very truly,
M. S. STONE.

MISCELLANEOUS BUSINESS LETTERS.

13. The following are letters that may occasionally arise in business practice. The letters of appointment, resignation, etc. are somewhat of the nature of *official* business letters.

REPORT OF AGENT.

FLINT, MICH.,
March 3, 1899.

MR. CHAS. E. CANFIELD,
Lockport, N. Y.

Dear Sir:

I have completed the sale of your farm of ninety acres in Richfield Township to Mr. S. M. Eaton, of Allegan. The consideration is \$5,175. Mr. Eaton assumes the mortgage of \$1,650 with \$42.75 accrued interest, gives you a second mortgage of \$2,000, pays \$800 in cash, and gives his note, endorsed by A. Meyer and payable in one year, for the remainder, \$682.25.

Trusting the transaction will prove satisfactory to you, I remain,
Yours very truly,

G. H. EASTMAN.

LETTER OF INFORMATION.

Confidential.

PEORIA, ILL., Oct. 28, 1899.

E. A. SHREMAN & Co.,
Terre Haute, Ind.*Gentlemen.*

I feel it my duty to write concerning one William E. Saunders, who, during the course of conversation here, informed me that he intends to call on you.

Shortly after he left my office, I received certain information concerning him, from persons of undoubted reliability, which leads me to the conviction that he is an entirely untrustworthy person.

This information I give you out of sincere regard for your business interests.

Your friend,
ALFRED JOHNSON.

LETTER OF APPOINTMENT.

EASTON, PA., June 24, 1899.

MR. GEORGE W. GRAHAM,
Trenton, N. J.*Dear Sir:*

I beg to inform you that the Board of Trustees of Lafayette College at their meeting on June 21 appointed you instructor in Physics at a salary of \$900 per year, from Sept. 1, 1899.

Please advise me whether or not you accept this appointment.

Yours very truly,

Registrar of Lafayette College.

LETTERS OF RESIGNATION.

PEORIA, ILL., Feb. 24, 1899.

HONORABLE _____,
Mayor of Peoria*Dear Sir:*

Having made arrangements to engage in engineering in a private capacity, I hereby resign my position as City Engineer of Peoria, the resignation to take effect May 1, 1899.

Very respectfully,
JOHN POOLF

HEADQUARTERS MIDDLE DEPARTMENT, EIGHTH ARMY CORPS,
BALTIMORE, MD., November 13, 1863.

THE PRESIDENT OF THE UNITED STATES.

Sir:—Having concluded to accept the place of Member of Congress in the House of Representatives, to which I was elected in October, 1862, I hereby tender the resignation of my commission as a Major General of United States Volunteers, to take effect on the 5th day of December next.

I shall leave the military service with much reluctance and a sacrifice of personal feelings and desires, and only consent to do so in the hope that in another capacity I may be able to do some effective service in the cause of my country and Government in this time of peculiar trial.

I have the honor to be, very respectfully, your obedient servant,

ROBT. C. SCHENK,
Major General.

LETTER DECLINING APPOINTMENT.

LANSING, MICH.,
July 15, 1898.

TO THE HONORABLE THE SPEAKER
OF THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES,
Lansing, Mich.

Sir:

Your letter informing me that I have just been appointed Clerk of the House of Representatives of the State of Michigan, I have just received.

While I am deeply grateful for the honor done me, I feel that, in duty to myself and in justice to my many professional engagements and obligations, I must decline the honor.

Believe me, however, Mr. Speaker, that I shall always cherish the remembrance of the high distinction conferred by my selection to this important office.

I am, Sir, with very great respect,

Very sincerely yours,

EDWIN BUTTERFIELD.

TELEGRAMS.

14. Telegrams are messages or other communications transmitted by wire. They are so much used in the business life of today, that to be able to write a good telegraphic message is one of the most desirable qualifications of a business man.

In telegraphic despatches the salutation and complimentary close are omitted. Such messages should be expressed in the fewest possible words to make the meaning clear. For instance:

SCRANTON, PA., March 16, '99.

SAMUEL JEWETT,
850 Delaware Ave.,
Buffalo, N. Y.

Meet me, Niagara Hotel, Buffalo, tomorrow morning at 10.

JAMES EWING.

This message might be written at length somewhat after this fashion:

"I will be in Buffalo tomorrow, and expect to stop at the Niagara Hotel, where I wish you to meet me."

This amplification is, as the student will at once perceive, wholly unnecessary. All that is required for the recipient of a telegram is that he should clearly understand the meaning of the sender. Care, however, must be taken not to condense so much as to make the message unintelligible. One might thus, by trying to save the slight extra cost of a word or two, lose what has been paid for the whole telegram, besides failing in the object for which it is sent. Read your message carefully after writing, and satisfy yourself that it states clearly what you mean. In the case of a very important telegram it might be well to read your copy to a disinterested person to see whether it is understood by another as well as by yourself.

Much of the telegraphing by business houses is at present done in cipher. Important matters may thus be telegraphed without giving information, except to those entitled to it. A great saving in expense may also, by this means, be effected. This saving is done by preparing a code of words, arranged alphabetically in which a single word stands for a phrase or a sentence; as, for instance, *here* may mean "I arrived here safe today." Cipher codes are printed and copies are furnished by the houses adopting them to each of their traveling men and the principal firms with whom they

do business. These cipher codes are mostly used in ordering goods, and for communications between employers and their traveling agents.

15. Rules and Rates.—From the Instructions and Rules of The Postal Telegraph-Cable Company, we learn that:

1. Each telegram for transmission must be written on the form provided by the Company for that purpose, or attached to such form by the sender, or by the person presenting the telegram, as the sender's agent, so as to leave the printed heading in full view above the telegram.

2. Telegraphing depends on the number of words, the distance, transfers, etc. The name of the place the message is sent from, the date, address, and the signature are not usually counted in estimating the number of words, except in cable messages.

In prepaid telegrams, however, the under mentioned words are counted and charged for; namely:

All words in an extra date; as, "via Boston, Mass.," in "Buffalo, N. Y., March 24, via Boston, Mass."

All extra words, such as "No." in an address; as, "John Smith, No. 80 Wall St., N. Y.," or "James Brown, No. 187 Broadway, N. Y."

Each figure in the body or text of a telegram; as, "Meet me at 1185 Madison Ave., tomorrow night." Also, each letter when it is an abbreviation of a word; as, "Meet me at W. C. T. U. Hall."

All signatures, except the last one in the case of two or more; as "T. R. Blackstone, Samuel Hughes, William Dearing," the first two of these signatures being charged for.

Titles consisting of not over two words after the signature are not charged for, as "George Brown, Gen'l Mgr."

All words after the signature that are not titles are charged for; such as, "report delivery charges," "delivery charges guaranteed," "report delivery," and "repeat back."

3. In counting a message, dictionary words, initial letters, surnames of persons, names of cities, towns, villages, states, or territories, or names of the Canadian provinces are

counted and charged for each as one word. Abbreviations for the names of towns, villages, states, territories, and provinces are counted the same as though they were written in full. The abbreviations of weights and measures in common use are each counted as one word.

All pronounceable groups of letters, when such groups are not combinations of dictionary words, are counted each group as one word. When such groups are made up of combinations of dictionary words, each dictionary word so used is counted. Numbers and amounts should be written in words, but if expressed in figures each figure is counted as one word.

Figures, decimal points, bars of division, and letters are, in general, counted each separately as one word.

In ordinal numbers the affixes "st," "d," "th," as in the case of 1st, 2d, 3d, 4th, are each counted as one word.

4. A night telegram must be written upon the night telegram form, and is acceptable only between the hours of opening and midnight. The offices closing before midnight will not accept a night telegram that cannot be started before the closing hour. In case of an interruption of the lines that it is believed would prevent the transmission of a night telegram before the following morning, such a telegram will not be accepted.

CABLEGRAMS.

16. Cablegrams must be written on the regular forms provided therefor, but if written on any other paper whatsoever, must, when offered for transmission, be pasted on the regular sending form before being forwarded. Every cablegram must be prepaid by the sender unless it be a "prepaid reply" or unless otherwise specially ordered. All words in the address, text, and signature are counted and charged for. Cablegrams may contain any number of words. Every address must consist of at least two words; the first indicating the name of the receiver, and the second the name of the place the cablegram is addressed to. The sender is responsible for an incorrect or insufficient address.

Corrections and alterations can only be made by a new cablegram, which must be paid for. Cablegrams may be written in plain language, code language, or cipher language, but they must be legibly written in characters that have their equivalents in the Morse alphabet.

The signature may be abbreviated or omitted, but the cable company declines to make any unpaid inquiries respecting it.

For the benefit of the student, we subjoin the list of rates.

ATLANTIC CABLE RATES.

From	Rate per word	From	Rate per word
Alabama	\$.31	Mississippi	\$.31
Arizona37	Missouri, Hannibal, Louisi-	
Arkansas34	ana, and St. Louis31
California37	Missouri, other offices34
Colorado34	Montana34
Connecticut25	Nebraska34
Delaware28	New Hampshire25
District of Columbia28	New Jersey, Hoboken and	
Florida, Pensacola31	Jersey City25
Georgia31	New Jersey, other offices28
Illinois31	New Mexico34
Indiana31	New York, Brooklyn and New	
Iowa, Burlington, Clinton, Ce-		York City, Governor's Island	
dar Rapids, Davenport, Du-		and Yonkers25
buque, Fort Madison, Keo-		New York, other offices28
kuk, and Muscatine31	North Carolina31
Iowa, other offices34	North Dakota34
Kansas34	Ohio31
Kentucky31	Oregon37
Louisiana, New Orleans31	Pennsylvania28
Louisiana, other offices34	Rhode Island25
Maine25	South Carolina31
Maryland28	Tennessee31
Massachusetts25	Texas34
Michigan31	Vermont25
Minnesota, Duluth, Hastings,		Virginia31
Minneapolis, Red Wing, St		Washington37
Paul, Stillwater, Wabasha,		West Virginia31
and Winona31	Wisconsin31
Minnesota, other offices34		

17. Regulations Governing Messages.—All messages taken by The Western Union Telegraph Company are subject to the following terms:

To guard against mistakes or delays, the sender of a message should order it *repeated*; that is, telegraphed back to the originating office for comparison. For this, one-half the regular rate is charged in addition. It is agreed between the sender of the message and the Company, that the Company shall not be liable for mistakes or delays in the transmission or delivery, or for non-delivery of any *unrepeated* message, beyond the amount received for sending the same; nor for mistakes or delays in the transmission or delivery, nor for non-delivery of any repeated message, beyond fifty times the sum received for sending the same, unless specially insured, nor in any case for delays arising from unavoidable interruption in the working of its lines, or for errors in cipher or obscure messages. And the Company is made the agent of the sender, without liability, to forward any message over the lines of any other Company when necessary to reach its destination. Correctness in the transmission of a message to any point on the lines of the Company can be *insured* by contract in writing, stating agreed amount of risk, and payment of premium thereon, at the following rates, in addition to the usual charge for repeated messages; viz, 1 per cent. for any distance not exceeding 1,000 miles, and 2 per cent. for any greater distance. No employe of the Company is authorized to vary the foregoing.

No responsibility regarding messages attaches to the Company until the same are presented and accepted at one of its transmitting offices; and if a message is sent to such office by one of the Company's messengers, he acts for that purpose as the agent of the sender.

Messages are delivered free within the established free-delivery limits of the terminal office. For delivery at a greater distance, a special charge is made to cover the cost of such delivery.

The Company will not be liable for damages or statutory

penalties in any case where the claim is not presented in writing within sixty days after the message is filed with the Company for transmission.

SOCIAL LETTERS.

18. Remark.—The letters collected in the following pages are mostly from the pens of well known men and women; they are excellent examples of the epistolary style, and are well worthy the close attention of the student.

The collection includes letters of affection, of friendship, of condolence, of sympathy, of gratitude, and of good counsel; also other letters of a more formal nature.

LETTERS OF AFFECTION.

19. Letters of affection are those that grow out of one's regard for others; they may be written by members of a family to one another, or by a lover to his betrothed.

LETTER FROM DANIEL WEBSTER TO EZEKIEL WEBSTER.

WASHINGTON, April 11, 1816.

DEAR EZEKIEL,—

I received yours yesterday, and I learned with great sorrow the illness of our mother and Mary. I have hardly a hope that the former can now be living. If she should be, on receipt of this tell her I pray for her everlasting peace and happiness, and would give her a son's blessing for all her parental goodness. May God bless her, living or dying!

If she does not survive, let her rest beside her husband and our father.

I hope Mary is not dangerously ill. You must write to me, addressed to New York, where I expect to be on my way home about the 28th or 30th instant. Congress will probably rise about the 22d or a few days later.

We have got through most of the important public business of this session.

Give my love to your wife and children, and may Heaven preserve you all.

Most affectionately yours,

D. WEBSTER.

The following charming letter from a young man to his betrothed is taken from "Scribner's Magazine," June, 1896:

BRADFORD COLLEGE, June 15, 1895.

MY DEAREST NELL:

You shouldn't complain that my letters for the past six weeks have been all about you, and nothing about myself. How can a fellow help it; when you have made him the happiest being in the world? Still if you command, I must obey; and begin the story of my poor self where I left off. Let's see. Where was it? It seems so long ago and so far away that I can scarce recall it.

"How soon a smile of God can change the world!"

Oh! I remember. The agreement was that you were to quit the rôle of St. Catherine, and condescend to enter a home instead of a settlement, and I was to abjure the vows of a St. Christopher to right at once all the wrongs of the universe by my own right arm, before entertaining the "thought of tender happiness." We were two precious fools, weren't we? Yet it was a divine folly after all. Goethe is right in his doctrine of renunciation. If we had not faced fairly the giving up of all this bliss, it would not be half so sweet to us now. And please don't tell me I have "smashed at one blow all your long cherished ideals of social service." It is not so. The substance of all those social aims of yours is as precious to us both as it ever was and we will find ways to work them out together. Not one jot or tittle of the loftiest standard you ever set before yourself shall be suffered to pass away unfulfilled. Your aims and aspirations are not lost, but transformed, *aufgehoben*, as the Germans say of the chemical constituents of the soil when they are taken up to form the living tissue of plant or animal.

There is nothing you ever thought of doing in a settlement that we will not do better in our home. We shall not give less to the world, because we are more ourselves. We shall not be less able to comfort those who sorrow, because our own hearts overflow with joy. Because we are rich in each other, we shall not be less generous to all. You shall have all the classes and schools and clubs and meetings you wish; and they will not be the least bit less successful for being in the home of a mill owner in our native city of fifty thousand people, instead of in some neglected quarter of a city ten times as big.

Do you know, father is so delighted with what he calls the "recovery of my reason," that he has promised to build a house for us this fall. We will work up the plans together this summer. One feature of it, though, I have fixed on already, which I know you will approve. Our library will be a long room, with a big fireplace on one side and a cozy den at each end, marked off by an arch supported by pillars. These dens we will fit up with our college books and furniture; and make

them just as nearly like our college rooms as we can. And then in the long winter evenings we will come out of our dens before the fireplace, and you will be my private tutor, and with your patient tuition I shall perhaps get some good after all out of the Horace and Goethe and Shelley and Browning, which you understand and love so well, but which, to tell the truth, I haven't got much out of thus far. Somehow we fellows don't get hold of those things as you do.

Isn't it glorious that my examinations come so that I can get off for your class day and commencement. To be sure, I shall probably forget the fine points in political economy and sociology, in which I have been working for honors the past two years. But then, honors or no honors, I have got the good out of them anyway, and what are honors at the end of college compared with love at the beginning of life.

I am delighted that you are coming to my commencement. My part is a dry, heavy thing; which I don't expect to make interesting to anybody else; but it is intensely interesting to me; for it sums up the inner experience which I have been going through these past four years, and has helped to give me my bearings as I go out into life. My subject is "Naturalness, Selfishness, Self-sacrifice, and Self-realization." You have known me as no one else has all these years, you will see what it all means. You catch the idea.

First: We set out as nature has formed and tradition has fashioned us; innocent, susceptible, frail. The hard cruel world comes down upon us, and would crush us under its heavy unintelligible weight.

Second: We rise up against it; defy tradition and throw convention to the winds. We in turn strive to trample others under foot. But though we wear spiked shoes, we find the pricks we kick against harder and sharper than our spikes.

Third: We surrender, abjectly and unconditionally; cast spear and shield away in the extreme of formal, abstract self-denial, and ascetic, egotistical self-sacrifice. This in turn betrays its hollowness and emptiness and uselessness and unreality.

Fourth: The Lord of life, against whom we have been blindly fighting all the while, lifts us up in his strong arms; sets us about the concrete duties of our station; arms us with the strength of definite human duties, and cheers us with the warmth of individual human love; and sends us forth to the social service which to hearts thus fortified is perfect freedom and perennial delight.

Such a process of spiritual transformation I take to be the true significance of a college course. To be sure, in college, as in the great world of which it is a part, none can see the meaning of the earlier phases until they reach the later; and consequently many never see any sense in it at all. For the great majority of men go through college, as the great majority go through life, without getting beyond the first or second stage, and graduate as Matthew Arnold says most men die, "unfreed, having seen nothing, still unblest."

There, Nell, haven't I been as egoistic this time as your altruistic highness could desire?

Your devoted lover,

CLARENCE MANSFIELD.

LETTERS OF FRIENDSHIP.

20. Letters of friendship are those exchanged by friends.

CHARLES SUMNER TO PROFESSOR SIMON GREENLEAF.

CONVENT OF PALAZZUOLA, July 27, 1839.

MY DEAR FRIEND,—

I wrote you once, I think, from the palace of an English Bishop, this will go to you from a monastery of Franciscans. In Rome, the heat is intense; and the fever-laden airs of the Campagna even enter the city. Here Greene and myself have come to pass a few days—"hermits hoar in solemn cell." An English noble would give a subsidy for such a site as this. In the background is the high mountain which was once dedicated to the Latial Jove, to whom Cicero makes his eloquent appeal in the oration for Milo, and on one side, clearly discernible from my window, is Tusculum, the favorite residence of the great Roman orator. The road over which I passed in coming here is that on which Milo encountered Clodius. The stillness and solemnity that is about me makes every day appear a Sabbath. My companion is the Consul at Rome—a dear friend of Longfellow, and a most delightful and accomplished person. The monks have given us three rooms each, besides the grand hall; each of us has a bedroom, a cabinet, and an ante-chamber. My ante-chamber is vaulted, and covered with arabesques. My other two rooms are painted, so as to resemble the cell of a hermit—the ceiling is arched—and I seem to see the rude stones which the pious man has built in the wilderness, and at my bedside are the beads and the crucifix. The hall is hung with pictures of the most distinguished of the order; and a fresco on the high-vaulted ceiling represents the ascension of St. Francis, its patron. What would these Fathers have said, if they could have foreseen that their retreat was to be occupied by heretics; that the hospitality of their convent was to be extended to those who do not believe in the Pope or St. Francis? You know that this order is one of the most rigid of the Roman Church. They wear neither hats nor stockings, but simply sandals for their feet. The remainder of their dress is a thick, heavy robe, or gown—"Odious" in woolen 'twould a saint provoke"—which they wear alike in all seasons. They live upon charity. One of their number lately was begging for corn of a farmer, who was treading out with his oxen the summer's harvest. The farmer, in

derision, and as a way of refusing, pointed to a bag which contained a load for three men, and told the monk he was welcome to that, if he would carry it off. 'The monk invoked St. Francis, stooped and took up the load, and quietly carried it away.' The astonished farmer followed him to the convent, and required the return of his corn. His faith was not great enough to see a miracle. It was given up; but the story coming to the ears of the governor of the town, he summarily ordered the restoration of the corn to the convent.

I have amused myself not a little in examining the library here. It consists of about a thousand volumes, all in parchment, and in Latin and Italian. There is one Spanish work, and one German. Our poor language has not a single representative. The monks have looked with astonishment upon the avidity with which I have examined their books, I doubt if they have had such an overhauling for a century. With gloves on, I took down and scanned every book, a large portion of them I found standing bottom upwards, and as I put them in their places properly (having had some experience in dealing with a library), I think the monks may be gainers by my visit. The librarian told me there were no MSS; but I found more than a dozen. The work on geography, which seemed to be the standard of the convent in this department of knowledge, spoke of England as divided into seven kingdoms—one of which was Mercia, another Northumberland, etc.; actually going back to the Heptarchy! The English possessions in America were represented as being taken (*toller*) from Spain, and of these, Bostona was the capital, but the great commercial place of America was Vera Cruz. When I get home, I will tell you what sort of people monks are.

Only a few days ago I received your kind letter of May 17. I deeply appreciate your sympathy in my father's death. Such a relation cannot be severed without awakening the strongest emotions; and though I cannot affect to feel entirely the grief that others have on such a bereavement, yet it has been to me a source of unfeigned sorrow, and has thrown a shadow across my Italian pleasures. In the education of my young brother and sisters I have always interested myself as much as I was allowed to, from the moment in which I had any education myself. I feel anxious to be at home, that I may take upon myself the responsibility which belongs to me as the eldest brother. Remember me to Mrs. Greenleaf, and believe me

Ever affectionately yours,

CHARLES SUMNER.

P. S. Rome, July 28.—I have just received a long letter from my brother George, who has penetrated the interior of Russia, Tartary, Circassia, Bithynia, and is now going to the Holy Land. He has seen more of Russia, I doubt not, than any foreigner alive. He is the most remarkable person of his age I know. Pardon this from a brother.

The following letter from Mrs. Mary Anderson Navarro to Mrs. R. N. Kelly, of Louisville, Ky., a friend of the former actress, is an ideal letter of friendship. It has been said that the true artist often might be an actor, painter, or sculptor, according as the artist willed. Certainly this charming letter indicates that "Our Mary" might have become a great woman of letters if she had not taken to the stage.

COURT FARM, BROADWAY, WORCESTERSHIRE.

MY DEAR OLD FRIEND.—So many thanks for your sweet kind letter Surely you are blessed in your children. Elsha, as I remember him, was one of the dearest of boys. May every blessing attend him and his wife. It seems odd that that little fellow should have a wife of his own, for I remember him as a tiny boy.

Yes, Juliet is in the convent in Kensington Square, almost opposite to Thackeray's house, where he wrote "Vanity Fair." She is very happy. No, Blanche is not going on the stage. She is very beautiful and has a lovely voice, but I hope she will not be tempted to the acting stage ever. (Blanche and Juliet are sisters of Mrs. Navarro.)

Yes, if I get over to America again my first pilgrimage will be to my girlhood's home, and how I shall love to see you all and introduce my adored and adorable Tony to you! He grows more charming and loving as the years go on.

I am so distressed to hear that Mr. Charles Jacob is dead. He was such a truly gentle man, and so charming to meet. It would be so lovely if you could run over here to this old-world place and see me some time. I should so love to see your dear, kind face again.

My little boy is now two and a half years old, and so clever for his age. His nurse is German, and he speaks German and English in his pretty prattling way. He is wonderfully affectionate, but he has a will of iron, and sometimes it takes it out of one to curb it, but he is a pure joy to us both.

Here I write and it is a bright Spring day. The snowdrops are out in our garden, and the crocus and daffodils show themselves in the orchard beyond, popping their pretty heads above the fresh, brilliant, green grass.

My own room is a white room, paneled from floor to ceiling in old wood. It has long, low windows, with tiny panes, and its furniture is all of the time of Louis XV., and in it the carpet and curtains are green. The white, green, and gold is so pretty.

Mother and Blanche have just returned from a trip to Germany. Mother is so handsome and so well. Joe has had four children. He has just lost a little girl. (Mary Anderson's brother, who married a daughter of Lawrence Barrett.)

There is a golden canary singing madly in one of the windows as though he would send you a message. Well, no more. Tony joins me in love to you and yours, and I close. Your ever true and loving

MAMIE.

LETTERS OF CONDOLENCE.

21. The following is a letter received from Admiral Dewey by Mrs. Noss, of Mt. Pleasant, whose husband, Jesse Noss, was killed in the battle of Malate, July 31, 1898:

OLYMPIA, FLAGSHIP, MANILA, Oct. 23, 1898.

MY DEAR MRS. NOSS:—I wish to express to you my deepest sympathy. It must lessen your sorrow somewhat to know that your young husband fell fighting bravely for his country, the noblest death a man can know. From the Olympia, I watched the fight that fearful night and wondered how many American homes would be saddened by the martyrdom suffered by our brave men, and my sympathy went out to each and every one of them.

Your loss has been sadder than the others and I am unable to express the sorrow I feel. Tears came to my eyes as I read the sad story of the father who never saw his child and then the loss of all that was left to the brave mother. It is hard sometimes to believe, but our Heavenly Father, in His infinite goodness, always does things best and some day father, mother, and daughter will be joined never again to be parted.

With tenderest sympathy, believe me, your sincere friend,

GEORGE DEWEY.

LETTER WRITTEN BY QUEEN VICTORIA TO LORD SELBORNE ON THE DEATH OF HIS WIFE.

It is for you to whom she was so devoted, that I feel so deeply, for to lose the loved companion of one's life is losing half one's existence. From that time everything is different, every event seems to lose its effect, for joy which cannot be shared by those who felt everything with you, is no joy, and sorrow is only redoubled when it cannot be shared and soothed by the one who alone could do so. The longer God has permitted us to remain together, the more acute must be the agony of separation, and I do most sincerely feel for you. No children can replace a wife, or a husband, may they be ever so good and devoted. One must bear one's burden alone.

If Napoleon the First had never written another line but the subjoined letter sent to his mother on the occasion of his

father's death, he would deserve enduring fame as a letter writer:

PARIS, March 29, 1785.

MY DEAR MOTHER:

Now that time has begun to soften the first transports of my sorrow, I hasten to express to you the gratitude I feel for all the kindness you have always displayed toward us. Console yourself, dear mother; circumstances require that you should. We will redouble our care and our gratitude, happy if, by our obedience, we can make up to you in the smallest degree for the inestimable loss of a cherished husband. I finish, dear mother—my grief compels it—by praying you to calm yours. My health is perfect, and my daily prayer is that Heaven may grant you the same.

NAPOLÉON BUONAPARTE.

LETTERS OF SYMPATHY.

22. Letters of sympathy convey consolation, comfort, and encouragement to friends in peril, distress, trial, or suffering from sickness or loss. "Sympathy is," according to Arthur Helps, "the universal solvent. Nothing is understood without it." Letters of sympathy should by their unselfish generosity bear out this definition.

DOLLY MADISON TO HER SISTER ANNA.

MONTPELIER, August 2, 1832.

BLOVED SISTER ANNA,—Mrs. Mason has just written to me to say you are a little better, and those dear daughters of yours, Mary and Dolly, whom I shall ever feel are my own children, have often consoled me by their letters since you were unable to write. Your husband and boys too have written frequently—all in that affectionate feeling towards you which manifested their deep love; and although my heart is sick with grief because I cannot see or assist you in your long and painful sickness—yet am I very thankful to the Almighty for His favors in bestowing such devoted friends as have surrounded your pillow.

My dear husband is recovering I hope slowly, though still confined to his bed. He speaks of you to me every day with all the partiality and love of a tender brother, and ardently hopes that we may be long spared to each other.

Mrs. Clay and her husband did not call to see me as we expected. They understood that General Jackson was at Montpelier and passed

ernor Bârbour's. The next day Mr. Clay came for a few
t did not meet the President here. I regretted much not
rs. Clay, as she would have talked to me of you.

ar sister, strive to get well and strong for my sake and your
s; what should we do without you! As soon as my eyes are
ill write to dear Mrs. B. In the meantime offer her my love
nks for all her goodness to you.

a, my dear, ever and always,

Your loving sister,

DOLLY P. MADISON.

e late Mr. Gladstone's letters will give him in history a
: that his speeches and statesmanship alone could never
in even for so illustrious an orator and profound a states-
1. We make place for one letter from Queen Victoria's
atest Prime Minister, so befitting the man that wrote it,
kindly to the illustrious sufferer stricken down by foulest
me, so tender and so consoling to the amiable recipient of
profound and heartfelt sympathy as to call for no further
mment.

RIGHT HONORABLE W. E. GLADSTONE TO MRS. J. A. GARFIELD.

LONDON, July 21, 1881.

DEAR MADAM:

You will, I am sure, excuse me, though a personal stranger, for
addressing you by letter to convey to you the assurances of my own
feelings and those of my countrymen, on the occasion of the late hor-
rible attempt to murder the President of the United States, in a form
more palpable at least than that of messages conveyed by telegraph.
Those feelings have been feelings in the first instance of sympathy,
and afterwards of joy and thankfulness almost comparable, I venture
to say only second to the strong emotions of the great nation of which
he is the appointed head. Individually, I have, let me beg you to
believe, had my full share in the sentiments which have possessed the
British nation. They have been prompted and quickened largely by
what I venture to think is the ever-growing sense of harmony and
mutual respect and affection between the countries, and of a relation-
ship which from year to year becomes more and more a practical bond
of union between us. But they have also drawn much of their strength
from a cordial admiration of the simple heroism which has marked the
personal conduct of the President, for we have not yet wholly lost the
capacity of appreciating such an example of Christian faith and manly
fortitude. This exemplary picture has been made complete by your

own contribution to its noble and touching features, on which I only forbear to dwell because I am addressing you. I beg to have my respectful compliments and congratulations conveyed to the President, and to remain, dear madam, your most faithful servant,

W. E. GLADSTONE.

LETTERS OF GRATITUDE.

23. Letters of gratitude are expressions of a due appreciation of favors received, accompanied by good will to the benefactor.

D. S. Gregory, in "Christian Ethics," says "*Gratitude* is the natural response of the heart to kindnesses intended or received. It implies (as a moral sentiment) the desire to show a proper appreciation of the favor, and to requite it if possible."

CAMBRIDGE, November 9, 1873.

DEAR MADAM:

I have had the pleasure of receiving your note and the poems you were kind enough to send me, and beg you to accept my thanks for this mark of your consideration.

These poems I have read with interest and sympathy, and feel how great a comfort it must be to you to be able to occupy the leisure which advancing years bring with them, with the exercise of your talent. If, as you say, you cannot hear the singing of the birds, you will enjoy all the more the sound of the voice that sings within.

Hoping that this consolation may never fail you, I am, Dear Madam,

Yours truly,

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW

579 FIFTH AVENUE, NEW YORK.

HON. JEROME B. REX, *Chief Clerk*,
House of Representatives,
Pennsylvania.

DEAR SIR:

Will you kindly convey to the members of the Senate and the House of Representatives of the State of Pennsylvania my sincere thanks for their kindness in passing a resolution in recognition of my services to the soldiers of your State during the war?

While I do not feel entitled to the many expressions of appreciation and good will that have come to me since the war with Spain, I am none the less deeply touched by them.

Very truly,

HENRY MILLER GOULD.

March 31, 1899.

The following public letter of thanks was written by Rudyard Kipling:

HOTEL GRENOBLE, Easter Day, '99.

Dear Sir:

Will you allow me through your columns to attempt some acknowledgment of the wonderful sympathy, affection, and kindness shown towards me during my recent illness, as well as the unfailing courtesy that controlled its expression?

I am not strong enough to answer letters in detail, so I must take this means of thanking as humbly, as sincerely, the countless people of good will throughout the world, who have put me under a great debt I can never hope to repay.

Faithfully yours,

RUDYARD KIPLING.

As a letter writer General Grant was clear, direct, unaffected, but likewise, as occasion demanded, delicate and sympathetic. His letter to General Sherman, written in March, 1864, is a case in point.

Dear Sherman:

The bill reviving the grade of Lieutenant-General in the army has become a law, and my name has been sent to the Senate for the place. I now receive orders to report to Washington immediately in person, which indicates a confirmation, or a likelihood of confirmation.

I start in the morning to comply with the order.

Whilst I have been eminently successful in this war, in at least gaining the confidence of the public, no one feels more than I how much of this success is due to the energy and skill, and the harmonious putting forth of that energy and skill, of those whom it has been my good fortune to have occupying subordinate positions under me.

There are many officers to whom these remarks are applicable to a greater or less degree, proportionate to their ability as soldiers: but what I want is to express my thanks to you and McPherson, as the men to whom, above all others, I feel indebted for whatever I have had of success.

How far your advice and assistance have been of help to me you know. How far your execution of whatever has been given you to do entitles you to the reward I am receiving, you cannot know as well as I.

I feel all the gratitude this letter would express, giving it the most flattering construction.

The word *you* I use in the plural, intending it for McPherson also.

I should write to him, and will some day: but, starting in the morning, I do not know that I will find time.

Your friend,

U. S. GRANT,

Major-General.

How truly unselfish this letter of a truly modest yet illustrious man. Thoughtful sympathy and earnest gratitude run through its every line. Grant speaks, indeed, of his success, but see how he generously attributes it, in a very large measure, to the energy and skill of his subordinates, especially Generals Sherman and McPherson. How expressively tender the assurance that he feels all the gratitude his letter under the most flattering construction could convey. No one can read such a letter, written at a time when success and adulation would have turned the brain of a weak and hardened the heart of a selfish man, without recognizing the true greatness of soul that enabled Grant to achieve such success in the field, and then, in the Chief Magistracy of the Nation, heal so many of the wounds inflicted by a cruel internecine conflict.

LETTERS OF EARNEST GOOD COUNSEL.

24. Letters of earnest good counsel may be addressed by parents to children, by brother to brother, by friend to friend, by superior to inferior.

MR. WEBSTER TO MASTER DANIEL WEBSTER.

WASHINGTON, March 6, 1848.

MY DEAR GRANDSON

Your father writes me from time to time, informing your grandfather and myself of the health of the family. But I wish to hear of you, and to know more of you. You are now ceasing to be a mere child. You are ten years old and it is time that you turned your attention seriously to your books, as I presume you do. It is time you should write me every week, and give me an account of your studies.

You must now, my dear namesake and grandson, think less of play and childish sports, and begin to pursue manly objects. I hear no

complaint of you, and believe you are doing very well. I expect to find you when I see you next, not a mere child, thinking of nothing but play and amusements; but a manly boy, fond of the company and conversation of your father and mother, and laboring to improve your mind.

Two or three things I wish now to impress on your mind. First, you cannot learn without your own efforts. All the teachers in the world can never make a scholar of you, if you do not apply yourself with all your might.

In the second place, be of good character, and good behavior; a boy of strict truth, and honor, and conscience in all things. Have but one rule, and let that be, always to act right, and fear nothing but to do wrong.

Finally, "Remember your Creator, in the days of your youth." You are old enough to know that God has made you, and given you a mind, and faculties; and will surely call you to account.

Honor and obey your parents; love your sister and brother; be gentle and kind to all; avoid all peevishness and fretfulness; be patient under restraint, and when you cannot have what you wish.

Look forward, constantly, to your approaching manhood, and put off every day, more and more, all that is frivolous and childish. Providence has taken from us your dear uncle Edward, in the full vigor of his life. It is an awful affliction to us all; but we must submit to the will of God.

Now, you must see how soon you can become what he was, a companion to your father and mother, and a comfort to us all.

May Heaven bless you, my dear grandson, and may you continue an object of warm affection to all your family connections, and all your friends.

Your affectionate grandfather,

DANIEL WEBSTER.

LETTERS OF SPECIAL REQUEST.

25. Letters of special request are those addressed by one friend to another, asking for the grant of some particular kindness, consideration, or favor.

GEORGE CRABBE TO EDMUND BURKE, ESQ.

SIR.—I am sensible that I need even your talents to apologize for the freedom I now take; but I have a plea which, however simply urged, will, with a mind like yours, sir, procure me a pardon; I am one of those outcasts of the world, who are without a friend, without employment, without bread.

Pardon me a short preface. I had a partial father, who gave me a better education than his broken fortune would have allowed, and a better than was necessary, as he could give me that only. I was designed for the profession of physic; but not having wherewithal to complete the requisite studies, the design that served to convince me of a parent's affection, and the error it had occasioned. In April last I came to London, with three pounds, and flattered myself that this would be sufficient to supply me with the common necessities of life, till my abilities should procure me more; of these I had the highest opinion, and a poetical vanity contributed to my delusion. I knew little of the world, and had read books only; I wrote, and fancied perfection in my compositions; when I wanted bread they promised me affluence, and soothed me with dreams of reputation, whilst my appearance subjected me to contempt.

Time, reflection, and want, have shown me my mistake. I see my trifles in that which I think the true light; and, whilst I deem them such, have yet the opinion that holds them superior to the common run of poetical publications.

I had some knowledge of the late Mr. Nassau, the brother of Lord Rochford, in consequence of which, I asked his lordship's permission to inscribe my little work to him. Knowing it to be free from all political allusions and personal abuse, it was no very material point to me to whom it was dedicated. His lordship thought it none to him, and obligingly consented to my request.

I was told that a subscription would be the more profitable method with me, and, therefore, endeavored to circulate copies of the inclosed proposals.

I am afraid, sir, I disgust you with this very dull narrative, but believe me punished in the misery that occasions it: You will conclude that, during this time, I must have been at more expense than I could afford; indeed, the most parsimonious could not have afforded it. The printer deceived me, and my little business has had every delay. The people with whom I live perceive my situation, and find me to be indigent and without friends. About ten days since, I was compelled to give a note of seven pounds, to avoid an arrest for about double that sum, which I owe. I wrote to every friend that I had, but my friends are poor likewise, the time of payment approached, and I ventured to represent my case to Lord Rochford. I begged to be credited for this sum till I received it of my subscribers, which, I believe, will be within one month, but to this letter I had no reply, and I have probably offended by my importunity. Having used every honest means in vain, I yesterday confessed my inability, and obtained, with much entreaty, and as the greatest favor, a week's forbearance, when I am positively told that I must pay the money, or prepare for a prison.

You will guess the purpose of so long an introduction. I appeal to you, sir, as a good, and, let me add, a great man. I have no better

pretensions to your favor than that I am an unhappy one. It is not easy to support the thought of confinement, and I am coward enough to dread such an end to my suspense.

Can you, sir, in any degree, aid me with propriety? Will you ask any demonstrations of my veracity? I have imposed upon myself, but I have been guilty of no other imposition. Let me, if possible, interest your compassion. I know those of rank and fortune are teased with frequent petitions, and are compelled to refuse the requests even of those whom they know to be in distress; it is, therefore, with a distant hope I ventured to solicit such favor; but you will forgive me, sir, if you do not think proper to relieve. It is impossible that sentiments like yours can proceed from any but a humane and generous heart.

I will call upon you, sir, tomorrow, and if I have not the happiness to obtain credit with you, I must submit to my fate. My existence is a pain to myself, and every one near and dear to me are distressed in my distresses. My connections, once the source of happiness, now embitter the reverse of my fortune, and I have only to hope a speedy end to a life so unpromisingly begun; in which (though it ought not to be boasted of) I can reap some consolation from looking to the end of it. I am, sir, with the greatest respect, your obedient and most humble servant,

GEORGE CRABBE.

LETTERS OF INQUIRY.

26. Letters of inquiry are frequently interchanged among friends. They may deal with persons, with politics, with historical events, or with science and art. These letters cover a very comprehensive field.

SPRINGFIELD, ILLINOIS, October 26, 1860.

MAJOR DAVID HUNTER.

My dear Sir:—Your very kind letter of the 20th was duly received, for which please accept my thanks. I have another letter, from a writer unknown to me, saying the officers of the army at Fort Kearney have determined, in case of the Republican success, at the approaching Presidential election, to take themselves, and the arms at that point, South, for the purpose of resistance to the government. While I think there are many chances to one that this is a humbug, it occurs to me that any real movement of this sort in the army would leak out and become known to you. In such case, if it would not be unprofessional or dishonorable (of which you are to be judge), I shall be much obliged if you will apprise me of it.

Yours very truly,

MAJOR DAVID HUNTER,

A. LINCOLN.

Fort Leavenworth, Kansas.

LETTERS OF NARRATIVE.

27. The following letter written by Sir Henry Bessemer, the famous inventor of the Bessemer process of making steel, to his niece Mrs. Charles Allen, may be classed as a letter of narrative.

DENMARK HILL, LONDON, S. W., March 31, 1897.

My Dear Niece Allow me to thank you very much for the most interesting specimen of embossing in Utrecht velvet which you have been so kind as to send me, it brings back old remembrances that will be for ever dear to me.

My sister was an artist with more than average ability in water color drawing, and excelled greatly in the art of embroidery in silk, and in due course was appointed embroideress to the Princess Victoria before she became Queen.

It is rather curious that I seemed born with an instinctive taste for designing patterns, and when I reflect on my natural aptitude for mechanical inventions, this old power of designing foliage, and flowers, but more especially grotesque ideal scroll work and foliage, it seems to me to have been a sort of faculty of inventing unseen forms in almost endless variety, and when I was only eighteen, I designed for one year the principal Indian patterns for the great Indian silk merchants Everingtons of Ladgate-Hill. It is a curious fact in connection with your friend's letter that I designed the patterns embroidered by my sister, in the draperies of the beautiful cradle of her Gracious Majesty's first infant, at which early period I had the honor to be an exhibitor, together with my sister, at the Royal Academy, then held at Somerset House in the Strand.

My sister had made a great number of flower paintings which she put together in a portfolio she had made, and on which she asked me to write in bold printing letters, "Studies of Flowers from Nature by Annie Bessemer." This little incident shaped my whole future life. I thought I would write the inscription in gold letters, and ordered two ounces of bronze powder (called also gold powder) but which is really only a beautiful fine brass, intrinsically worth eight pence per pound. I was charged fourteen shillings for my two ounces of brass powder, with the result that a material known and used in China and Japan for more than 4 000 years, was still made by a roundabout hand process, hence its great cost. I invented an elaborate series of self-acting machines and manufactured it successfully. My first order was obtained by my traveller, from the Colebrookdale Iron Company, for two pounds at eighty shillings per pound net. I kept the process a profound secret for about thirty-six years; it furnished me the money necessary for pursuing my many patented inventions, and then the secret leaked out, prices went down and down until I was selling the

same article for which I had eighty shillings a pound, as low as two shillings and ninepence, when I gave up the manufacture.

But I am letting my pen run away with me, and forgetting all about Utrecht velvet. Between forty and fifty years ago, I was exhibiting some specimens of castings from natural objects, cast in white metal and which were coated by a thin film of copper deposited thereon from an acid solution of that metal. The Exhibition was known as "Tobliesses" Museum of Arts and Manufacture, which occupied the site of the present National Gallery in Trafalgar Square.

These specimens were seen and admired by Mr. Pratt, an upholsterer in Bond Street, and he sought me out, showing me a beautiful piece of velvet work of French manufacture; he proposed to produce a similar effect by embossing Utrecht velvet. He had tried the embossers of cotton velvet at Manchester, but they had utterly failed. This stubborn pile would not keep down, and the pattern was all gone in a few weeks.

I studied the question both from a chemical and a mechanical point of view, made some experiments, and found that my plan was successful. The simple fact is that wool, like the hair of all animals, partakes of the property of horn, and is fusible by heat, but that high temperature is destructive if continued for more than a second of time, and my rollers would burn the whole fabric if worked too slowly. There were many details to work out, and when that was done I constructed the necessary machinery at my own cost, and managed to have six shillings a yard for all the velvet I passed through the machine. The first work done by the machine was for the furnishing of a suite of rooms in Windsor castle. With this good introduction the material became popular and fashionable, and I may add profitable. I increased the demand by lowering the price, and when it got down to one shilling per yard, I sold the machinery to a manufacturer of Utrecht velvet, at Danbury; the price eventually came down to twopence per yard, and then omnibusses and cabs were lined with it. My great difficulty was, I could find no one capable of preparing the rolls, and had, as a last resource, to do it myself.

Your affectionate uncle,

HENRY BESSEMER.

LETTERS OF CENSURE.

28. Letters of censure are, in social life, best omitted. A father or mother may, however, sometimes be justly called on to reprove a son with the view to his improvement; so too may a superior admonish an inferior. Still more rarely may a friend tender his friend a letter of charitable

assigned to the new Western Department, it had not been determined to replace General Sherman in Kentucky; but of this I am not certain, because the idea that a command in Kentucky was very desirable, and one in the farther West undesirable, had never occurred to me. You constantly speak of being placed in command of only 3,000—now tell me, is not this mere impatience? Have you not known all the while that you are to command four or five times as many?

I have been, and am sincerely your friend; and if as such, I dare make a suggestion, I would say you are adopting the best possible way to ruin yourself. “Act well your part, there all the honor lies.” He who does *something* at the head of one regiment, will eclipse him who does *nothing* at the head of a hundred.

Your friend as ever,

A. LINCOLN.

LETTERS OF INVITATION, ACCEPTANCE, AND REGRET.

29. Invitations to dinners, receptions, etc. are usually conveyed by notes (see Art. **30**). There are cases, however, in which letters may properly be used. Take the case exemplified by the first of the following letters: Mr. Matheson feels that his guest Colonel Lee would find Mr. Graham a congenial associate and wishes to invite the latter to dinner. He is not particularly intimate with Mr. Graham, and cannot therefore write a familiar note, beginning with “Dear Graham”; on the other hand, a formal note in the third person would be too ceremonious and stiff. The writer therefore resorts to the ordinary letter. The acceptance or letter of regret has of course the same form as the letter of invitation.

LETTER OF INVITATION.

15 COURT STREET,

BROOKLYN, N. Y.,

March 17, 1899.

HUGH GRAHAM, ESQ.,

New York City.

My Dear Sir:

My friend, Colonel Lee, of Virginia, is now visiting me, and I am very anxious that you should meet him.

We shall esteem it a great favor if Mrs. Graham and yourself do us the honor to come to dine next Thursday evening at 7 o'clock.

Very sincerely yours,

ROBERT MATHESON.

LETTER OF ACCEPTANCE.

540 MADISON AVENUE,
NEW YORK CITY,
March 18, 1899.

ROBERT MATHESON, Esq.,
Brooklyn, N. Y.

My Dear Sir:

Your kind favor of the 17th inst. I have received, and acknowledge with hearty thanks. I shall be glad, indeed, to meet your friend, Colonel Lee, of whom I have so long and favorably heard.

Mrs. Graham and myself gratefully accept your invitation to dinner on Thursday evening next.

Very truly yours,
HUGH GRAHAM.

LETTERS OF REGRET.

15 VERMONT AVENUE,
WASHINGTON, D. C.,
Mar. 17, 1899.

THE HONORABLE HOMER DICKSON, M. C.,
Arlington Hotel.

My Dear Sir:

I beg to acknowledge with hearty thanks the receipt of your very kind invitation to dinner for Wednesday evening next, which reached me Saturday. I had hoped to do myself the honor of accepting this invitation, and to have the pleasure of enjoying an evening at your hospitable and intellectual board.

An unexpected call to Philadelphia, however, obliges me, reluctantly, to write that it will be impossible for me to attend.

I have the honor to be, dear Sir, with much respect,

Very faithfully yours,
F. B. STRATTON.

From the Poet Longfellow.

MY DEAR SIR:

I fear that after all, I shall not be able to attend Mr. Lover's dinner. I will be certainly frank with you. I am frightened at the idea of having to speak, which at all public dinners hangs over me like the sword of Damocles. It is this skeleton at the feast that warns me away.

My warmest thanks, however, for your invitation, and believe me,

Very truly yours,

October 2, 1846.

HENRY W. LONGFELLOW

to place it at the top. Notes in the familiar form may quite properly have the date at the top.

34. French Phrases.—The following French phrases and words, or their initials, are sometimes used on notes and cards:

R. S. V. P. Répondez, s'il vous plaît—answer, if you please.

P. P. C. Pour prendre congé—to take leave.

Costume de rigueur—full dress, in character.

Bal masque—masquerade ball.

Soirée dansante—dancing party.

These phrases are, however, passing out of use.

35. Superscription.—The envelope—or if there are two envelopes, the inside one—should bear only the name of the party addressed. This applies to notes of invitation, and in general to notes sent by messenger. Notes to persons living in another city—or locality—may be sent by mail like letters. In this case the full address is put on the outer envelope and only the name and title on the inner envelope. A note to a married couple may have the names of both for the superscription; as, *Mr. and Mrs. Robert Dunlap*. When, however, both names are mentioned in the note, it is quite customary to put only the wife's name on the envelope.

Familiar notes are in effect short letters, and are superscribed like ordinary letters, when sent by mail.

INVITATIONS.

36. Notes of Invitation.—These include invitations to *dinners*, to *weddings*, to *balls* and *social parties*, to *college* and *society anniversaries*, and to many other social functions.

37. Dinners.—An invitation to a dinner should contain the name of the person for whom the invitation is intended and should state very clearly the date and hour of the dinner. The invitation may be either written or printed.

Invitations to dinner should always be answered, as it is

necessary for the host or hostess to know the number of persons that will be present.

We give some forms for dinner invitations:

Mr. James E. Colvin requests the pleasure of Mr. E. Howard Sloan's company at dinner, on Wednesday evening, June 28, at eight o'clock:
410 Griswold Ave.

Mr. and Mrs. Cavendish have the honor of inviting
Mr. and Mrs. Lansing Lewis to dinner, Saturday,
February 11, 1899, at seven o'clock P. M.

38. Wedding Invitations.—Invitations to weddings should be issued ten days or more before the ceremony, by the bride's parents or nearest friend. They may be engraved in script, written, or printed from type on cards or note paper. The note form is preferable for an invitation of this kind. The form of invitation following does not require an answer. The invitation is usually accompanied by a church admission card; sometimes a reception card is also sent with it.

Mr. and Mrs. L. O. Price
request your presence
at the marriage of their daughter
Winifred Davis
to
Andrew Jackson Houston,
Friday Evening, April sixth,
Eighteen Hundred and Ninety-Nine.
New Orleans, La.

39. Announcement.—A wedding announcement may have the following form:

Mr. Samuel E. Denton,
Miss Mary Folmer
Married
Wednesday, June fourteenth, 1899.
At home after July twelfth,
433 Madison Ave.

Another method is to have merely the announcement written or engraved on the note sheet and the "at home" on a card, as follows:

Mr. and Mrs. Samuel E. Denton
At home after July 12,
433 Madison Ave.

40. Invitations to Parties.—The following notes will serve as models for invitations to parties, balls, etc.

1.

Mr. and Mrs. M. W. Storey request the pleasure of Miss Estey's company on Thursday evening, March 3, at eight o'clock.

2.

Mr. and Mrs. E. F. Payne request the pleasure of your company on Tuesday evening, October 22, from eight to eleven o'clock, to meet Colonel and Mrs. Harding.
1627 Spruce St.

3.

Mr. and Mrs. A. Barton request the honor of your company to celebrate the fifteenth birthday of their daughter Agnes, on Monday evening, November 22.

4.

The pleasure of your company is requested at the
Junior Promenade
on Friday evening, May 15, at nine o'clock.
The Armory.

41. Familiar Notes.—Between intimate friends the formality of the third person is often dropped and the style of the familiar letter is used; thus:

DEAR JOHN,

Frank is to be here this evening. Can you not come too?

CHARLES.

DEAR ALICE,

We are getting up a little party to go to the lake Friday afternoon. Will you not join us? If you will go, we will call for you at one o'clock. Try to go.

Your friend,

SARAH.

Please answer by bearer

42. Miscellaneous Notes of Invitation.—The following are notes appropriate for various occasions, not included among those previously given.

AT HOME, June 4.

Miss Williams presents her love to Miss Thompson, and requests the pleasure of her company at an evening social, on Monday, the 10th instant.

Yourself and family are respectfully invited to attend the funeral of

Mr. Thomas Horton

from the family residence, 802 Green St., on Friday, the 14th inst., at ten o'clock A. M.

Interment in Avondale Cemetery.

The Class of '97
of the
University of Illinois
invite you to be present
at their
Commencement Exercises
June fourth to ninth,
1897.

ACCEPTANCES AND REGRETS.

43. Except in the case of dinners, it is not necessary to send an acceptance to an invitation to an entertainment unless the invitation contains a specific request for an answer. A *regret*, that is, a non-acceptance, must be sent in case one is unable to attend.

An invitation to a dinner should be answered at once. Other invitations requiring an answer should be answered within three days of the receipt of the invitation. If a person finds at the last moment that he cannot attend, a regret should be sent the day after the party.

The style of the acceptance or regret should correspond somewhat to the style of the invitation. A formal note demands a formal answer, a familiar note a familiar answer.

Notes of acceptance and regret should be written.

44. Models.—The following forms of acceptances and regrets are in answer to the preceding invitations.

1.

Mr. E. Howard Sloan accepts with pleasure Mr. Colvin's kind invitation for Wednesday evening, June 28th.

Friday, June 23d.

2.

Mr. Sloan regrets that, owing to a business engagement, he is unable to accept Mr. Colvin's kind invitation for Wednesday evening.

Friday, June 23d.

3.

MY DEAR SARAH:

I shall be greatly pleased to form one of your party for Friday afternoon, and will be ready at the appointed time.

Ever yours,

ALICE.

4.

Miss Thompson accepts with pleasure the charming invitation of Miss Williams for Monday evening next.

515 Madison Ave., June 8.

MISCELLANEOUS NOTES.

45. Notes are chiefly used in matters of ceremony, as invitations, etc. They may, however, be used under other circumstances, as illustrated by the following:

Will Mr. Snow kindly lend Miss Saunders, for the afternoon, his copy of "Harper's Magazine" for June?

June 6th.

Mr. Hudson, having business of special importance to communicate, will be glad if Mr. Artley can make it convenient to call on him at two o'clock this afternoon.

1305 California Avenue,

Saturday, May 17.

ADMIRAL THE EARL OF HARDWICK TO ADMIRAL FARRAGUT

13th July, SIDNEY LODGE.

Admiral the Earl of Hardwick presents his compliments to Admiral Farragut and begs to say that he is now resident at the above address. He is lame, and has difficulty in boarding ship, or he would wait in

person on Admiral Farragut. The Earl of Hardwick hopes that he may be able in some way to gain Admiral Farragut's friendship.

ADMIRAL FARRAGUT, U. S. Navy.

CARDS OF CEREMONY.

46. Cards are sometimes used instead of notes to convey invitations to social functions, as weddings, receptions, etc. Cards thus used are classed as *cards of ceremony*.

The forms of invitations previously given for notes, with the exception, of course, of the familiar form, are equally applicable to cards. It is therefore unnecessary to give other models.

In order that the written or printed matter may not appear crowded, cards of ceremony are necessarily quite large. The usual size is about 3 in. \times 4½ in. or 3½ in. \times 5 in. The cards should be of the finest quality of cardboard. The color is usually white.

Cards of ceremony, like notes, may be enclosed in either one or two envelopes, depending on the circumstances of the delivery. The remarks we have made regarding the superscription and delivery of notes apply also to cards.

BUSINESS, PROFESSIONAL, AND OFFICIAL CARDS.

47. Business men use cards to show the business in which they are engaged and to give their address. They are generally used as a matter of convenience, although they may be used for advertising purposes.

Cards are also used by professional men and public officers for professional and official purposes. Such cards should contain the person's name and professional or official title; the address may or may not be added.

Business and professional cards may be printed with ordinary type, but are usually printed from handsomely engraved plates. They should always be plain, neat, and tasteful.

The following are forms generally used:

HAVEN & STOUT.**1 NASSAU STREET, CORNER WALL ST.**

Members of {
NEW YORK STOCK EXCHANGE.
NEW YORK COTTON EXCHANGE.
CHICAGO BOARD OF TRADE.

Orders executed on above Exchanges in
BONDS, STOCKS, COTTON, GRAIN.

HENRY W. WILMER, CONSULTING ENGINEER,**1312 MADISON BUILDING,**

Waterworks, Sewerage, and
Municipal Engineering

CHICAGO, ILL.**ALBERT O. EVERHART,****MAGISTRATE OF COURT NO. 3,****418 South Eleventh Street,****PHILADELPHIA, PA.**

VISITING CARDS.

48. Uses.—Among the many uses to which visiting cards are put, we mention the following: to announce a visitor's name; to announce a guest's name at a reception; to make one's name known to a stranger; to accompany a letter of introduction.

There are many customs and rules regarding the proper use of visiting cards for various occasions and under various circumstances; a discussion of these points would, however, fall outside of the scope of this Paper.

49. Inscription.—In addition to the name, the residence may also be given in the lower right or left corner. If a lady has a regular day or days for receiving, she sometimes announces this in the lower left corner; as, "Wednesdays," or "Thursdays and Fridays," etc.

A title of address, as Mr., Mrs., may be used or not, according to the taste of a person. Professional men and persons in high official positions, use their professional titles; as, Dr., Gen., M.D., C.E., etc. One should not use the title Honorable, or any scholastic title, unless it is at the same time professional. A man and his wife sometimes use a joint card; as, "Mr. and Mrs. Smith," "Dr. and Mrs. H. A. Brown," etc.

A married lady, if her husband is living, uses her husband's Christian name or initials instead of her own; as, "Mrs. James A. Brown."

50. Style.—Visiting cards vary in style and size to suit the taste and changing fashions. They should always be plain and neat. The most elegant cards are engraved or written; those printed from type have an inferior look and are not much used by people of refined taste.

PUBLIC LETTERS.

51. Public, or open, letters may be a communication from a regular newspaper correspondent narrating certain phases, for instance, of the war with Spain, the political and

social conditions of the Philippine Islands, the condition of the negro in the South, or such like matters of grave public interest; or, again, the open letter may be one discussing questions of public policy, addressed to the public at large, or to some private individual of recognized importance in the community in which he lives.

52. Open letters have played a great part in American history. The spirit of revolt that Congress had, at the close of the Revolutionary War, by criminal neglect, engendered in the army against the greatly-abused powers of Congress, soon degenerated from open hostility to that body into a covert, yet decided, antagonism to the republican system itself. "This antagonism ran," says "Peterson's Magazine," "throughout the rank and file of the whole Continental line and even extended to the militia in the Northern States.

"From brooding over their wrongs, the great body of the officers of the army took counsel together, for the purpose of overthrowing the authority by which those wrongs were inflicted, and in the bitterness of their resentment so far forgot their duty as citizens, and their solemn oaths of allegiance as American soldiers, that they determined to pull down the temple of Liberty reared by their valor and fortitude, and erect a monarchy upon its ruins. Their proposed plan of establishing an elective kingdom depended for its successful execution upon Washington's acceptance of the crown as king of America. All the cohesion that it possessed, and the bond of union among those who supported it, rested upon the hope that they would convince him that the true welfare of the country would be best promoted by such a change in the system of government as would lodge the power of the nation in the hands of a single wise and just ruler. Colonel Lewis Nicola, of the Pennsylvania line, to whom Washington was strongly attached, a most worthy officer, distinguished for the highest soldierly qualities, and of unimpeachable moral character, was appointed by them to submit their proposal to him in the name of the army.

“ He presented it to Washington in a regular document, at his headquarters, which were then at Fishkill-on-the-Hudson, in the house of David Verplanck, a one-story building of wood and stone in the Dutch style, which is still well preserved. Colonel Nicola very prudently retired as soon as he presented the document, his curiosity to observe its effect upon Washington not being so strong as his concern about its effect on himself, should he remain to witness its perusal.

“ That he acted wisely in retiring was made manifest by the following answer sent him by Washington on the same day:

“ TO COLONEL LEWIS NICOLA.

“ *Sir*:—With a mixture of surprise and indignation I have read with attention the sentiments you have submitted to my perusal.

“ Be assured, sir, no occurrence in the course of the war has given me more painful sensations than your information of their being such ideas existing in the army as you have expressed, which I must view with abhorrence, and reprehend with severity. For the present the communication of them will rest in my own bosom, unless some further agitation of the matter shall make a disclosure necessary.

“ I am much at a loss to conceive what part of my conduct could have given encouragement to an address which seems to me big with the greatest mischiefs that can befall my country. If I am not deceived in the knowledge of myself, you could not have found a person to whom your schemes are more disagreeable.

“ At the same time, in justice to my own feelings, I must add, that no man possesses a more sincere wish to see justice done to the army than I do; and as far as my power and influence in a constitutional way extend, they shall be employed to the utmost of my abilities to effect it, should there be any occasion.

“ Let me conjure you then, if you have any regard for your country, concern for yourself or posterity, or respect for me, to banish these thoughts from your mind, and never communicate as from yourself, or any one else, a sentiment of the like nature.

“ GEORGE WASHINGTON.”

53. Abraham Lincoln was perhaps in no respect more powerful and persuasive than as a letter writer. Here is a model letter from his pen :

WASHINGTON, August 26, 1863.

DEAR SIR :

Your letter, inviting me to attend a mass meeting of unconditional Union men, to be held at the capital of Illinois on the 3d day of September, has been received. It would be very agreeable to me to thus meet my old friends at my own home, but I cannot just now be absent from here so long as a visit there would require.

The meeting is to be of all those who maintain unconditional devotion to the Union, and I am sure my old political friends will thank me for tendering, as I do, the nation's gratitude to those other noble men whom no partisan malice or partisan hope can make false to the nation's life.

There are those who are dissatisfied with me. To such I would say: You desire peace, and you blame me that we do not have it. But how can we attain it? There are but three conceivable ways. First, to suppress the rebellion by force of arms. This I am trying to do. Are you for it? If you are, so far we are agreed. If you are not for it, a second way is to give up the Union. I am against this. Are you for it? If you are, you should say so plainly. If you are not for force, nor yet for dissolution, there only remains some imaginable compromise.

I do not believe any compromise embracing the maintenance of the Union is now possible. All I learn leads to a directly opposite belief. The strength of the rebellion is its military—its army. That army dominates all the country and all the people within its range. Any offer of terms made by any man or men within that range, in opposition to that army, is simply nothing for the present, because such man or men have no power whatever to enforce their side of a compromise if one were made with them.

To illustrate. Suppose refugees from the South and peace men of the North get together in convention and frame and proclaim a compromise embracing a restoration of the Union, in what way can that compromise be used to keep Lee's army out of Pennsylvania? Meade's army can keep Lee's army out of Pennsylvania, and I think can ultimately drive it out of existence. But no paper compromise to which the controllers of Lee's army are not agreed can at all effect that army. In effort at such compromise we should waste time which the enemy would improve to our disadvantage, and that would be all.

A compromise, to be effective, must be made either with those who control the rebel army, or with the people first liberated from the domination of that army by the success of our own army. Now, allow me to assure you that no word or intimation from that rebel army, or from any of the men controlling it, in relation to any peace compromise, has ever come to my knowledge or belief. All charges and insinuations to the contrary are deceptive and groundless. And I promise you that if any such proposition shall hereafter come, it shall not be rejected and kept a secret from you. I freely acknowledge myself the servant of

the people according to the bond of service—the United States Constitution—and that as such I am responsible to them.

But, to be plain, you are dissatisfied with me about the negro. Quite likely there is a difference of opinion between you and myself upon that subject. I certainly wish all men could be free, while I suppose you do not. Yet I have neither adopted nor proposed any measure which is not consistent with even your view, provided you are for the Union. I suggested compensated emancipation, to which you replied you wished not to be taxed to buy negroes. But I had not asked you to be taxed to buy negroes, except in such way as to save you from greater taxation to save the Union exclusively by other means.

You dislike the Emancipation Proclamation, and perhaps would have it retracted. You say it is unconstitutional. I think differently. I think the Constitution invests its commander-in-chief with the law of war in time of war. The most that can be said—if so much—is that slaves are property. Is there, has there ever been, any question that by the law of war, property, both of enemies and friends, may be taken when needed? And is it not needed whenever taking it helps us or hurts the enemy? Armies, the world over, destroy enemies' property when they cannot use it, and even destroy their own to keep it from the enemy. Civilized belligerents do all in their power to help themselves or hurt the enemy, except a few things regarded as barbarous or cruel. Among the exceptions are the massacre of vanquished foes and non-combatants, male and female.

But the proclamation, as law, either is valid or is not valid. If it is not valid it needs no retraction. If it is valid it cannot be retracted, any more than the dead can be brought to life. Some of you profess to think its retraction would operate favorably for the Union. Why better after the retraction than before the issue? There was more than a year and a half of trial to suppress the rebellion before the proclamation issued, the last one hundred days of which passed under an explicit notice that it was coming, unless averted by those in revolt returning to their allegiance. The war has certainly progressed as favorably for us since the issue of the proclamation as before.

I know, as fully as one can know the opinion of others, that some of the commanders of our armies in the field, who have given us our most important successes, believe the emancipation policy and the use of the colored troops constitute the heaviest blow yet dealt to the rebellion, and that at least one of these important successes could not have been achieved when it was but for the aid of black soldiers. Among the commanders holding these views are some who have never had any affinity with what is called "Abolitionism" or with "Republican party politics," but who hold them purely as military opinions. I submit these opinions as being entitled to some weight against the objections often urged that emancipation and arming the blacks are unwise as military measures, and were not adopted as such in good faith.

You say you will not fight to free negroes. Some of them seem willing to fight for you—but no matter. Fight you, then, exclusively to save the Union. I issued the proclamation on purpose to aid you in saving the Union. Whenever you shall have conquered all resistance to the Union, if I shall urge you to continue fighting, it will be an apt time then for you to declare you will not fight to free negroes. I thought that in our struggle for the Union, to whatever extent the negroes should cease helping the enemy, to that extent it weakened the enemy in his resistance to you. Do you think differently? I thought that whatever negroes can be got to do as soldiers leaves just so much less for white soldiers to do in saving the Union. Does it appear otherwise to you? But negroes, like other people, act upon motives. Why should they do anything for us if we will do nothing for them? If they stake their lives for us, they must be prompted by the strongest motive, even the promise of freedom. And the promise, being made, must be kept.

The signs look better. The Father of Waters again goes unvexed to the sea. Thanks to the great Northwest for it. Nor yet wholly to them. Three hundred miles up they met New England, Empire, Keystone, and Jersey, hewing their way right and left. The sunny South, too, in more colors than one, also lent a hand. On the spot, their part of the history was jotted down in black and white. The job was a great national one, and let none be banned who bore an honorable part in it. And while those who have cleared the great river may well be proud, even that is not all. It is hard to say that anything has been more bravely and well done than at Antietam, Murfreesboro, Gettysburg, and on many fields of lesser note. Nor must Uncle Sam's web-feet be forgotten. At all the watery margins they have been present. Not only on the deep sea, the broad bay, and the rapid river, but also up the narrow, muddy bayou; and wherever the ground was a little damp, they have been and made their tracks. Thanks to all. For the great Republic—for the principle it lives by and keeps alive—for man's vast future—thanks to all.

Peace does not appear so distant as it did. I hope it will come soon, and come to stay; and so come as to be worth the keeping in all future time. It will then have been proved that among free men there can be no successful appeal from the ballot to the bullet, and that they who take such appeal are sure to lose their case and pay the cost. And there will be some black men who can remember that with silent tongue, and clenched teeth, and steady eye, and well-poised bayonet they have helped mankind on to this consummation, while I fear there will be some white ones unable to forget that with malignant heart and deceitful speech they strove to hinder it.

Still let us not be over sanguine of a speedy, final triumph. Let us be quite sober. Let us diligently apply the means, never doubting that a just God, in his own good time, will give us the rightful result.

A. LINCOLN.



A SERIES
OF
QUESTIONS AND EXAMPLES
RELATING TO THE SUBJECTS
TREATED OF IN THIS VOLUME.

It will be noticed that the questions and examples contained in the following pages are divided into sections corresponding to the sections of the text of the preceding pages, so that each section has a headline which is the same as the headline of the section to which the questions refer. No attempt should be made to answer any questions or to work any examples until the corresponding part of the text has been carefully studied.



GRAMMAR.

(PART 1.)

(1) Distinguish between *language in its widest sense* and *language as treated in grammar*.

(2) Explain why words pass out of use and new words appear in a language.

(3) Give a general sketch of the various matters included in the subject of grammar.

(4) Define *grammar*, and mention its general heads or divisions.

(5) Explain what is meant by *words arranged in relation* and *words out of relation*. Illustrate each.

(6) What is the difference between an *idea* and a *thought*?

(7) Explain fully what is included in etymology; also, what should be found in syntax.

(8) State and illustrate the three uses or purposes served by sentences.

(9) Define sentences with respect to *use*.

(10) Give, in words of your own choosing, the substance of what is said in the Instruction Paper about exclamatory sentences.

(11) Write two sentences of each of the following kinds: *exclamatory-declarative*, *exclamatory-interrogative*, and *exclamatory-imperative*.

- (12) Illustrate what is meant by *sentences of mixed form*.
- (13) What are the chief uses of capital letters and marks of punctuation?
- (14) Underscore the subject nouns, and doubly underscore the predicate verbs, of the following sentences:
- (a) How pretty are the many-colored clouds at sunset.
 - (b) Brief but delightful are the happy days of youth.
 - (c) Round the rough ring the rugged rascals ran.
 - (d) Is the steady, old-fashioned horse to become extinct in civilized lands?
 - (e) Lay not up for yourselves treasures upon earth.
- (15) Define and illustrate the *subject* and the *predicate* of a declarative sentence.
- (16) Write five declarative sentences, and then make them interrogative.
- (17) Explain and illustrate the exact work of a *modifier*.
- (18) Write the following quotation, and underscore its *nouns*; also, doubly underscore its verbs:
- "Courage!" he said, and pointed toward the land,
"This mounting wave will roll us shoreward soon."
In the afternoon they came unto a land
In which it seemed always afternoon
All round the coast the languid air did swoon,
Breathing like one that hath a weary dream.
Full-faced above the valley stood the moon;
And, like a downward smoke, the slender stream
Along the cliff to fall and pause and fall did seem.
- (19) Write the pronouns that are used in each sentence in Art 34, and place them in the order in which they occur there.
- (20) Explain why the pronoun is a more convenient word in speech than the noun. Define the pronoun.
- (21) Make a list of the verbs that occur in the quotation given in Art 34.
- (22) As in Art 37, place suitable modifiers after *I eat*.

(23) Write two sentences each containing all the various parts of speech except the interjection.

(24) As in Art. 39, bring the following pairs into relation by means of suitable prepositions, two or more for each pair: *go* — *the house*; *speak* — *the sermon*; *living* — *pain*; *angry* — *opposition*; *swam* — *river*.

(25) State and illustrate the principal difference between *prepositions* and *conjunctions*.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 2.)

(1) Write sentences illustrating the use of nouns or pronouns as *independent*: (*a*) with a verbal to express a cause; (*b*) in direct address; (*c*) by pleonasm; (*d*) by exclamation.

(2) Tell the use of each noun and pronoun in the following sentences:

Cræsus, a king of Lydia, was the possessor of enormous wealth.

Pebbles on the seashore are rounded by the action of the waves.

Honor; he is not at all a man of honor.

You do not always overcome an opponent by vanquishing him in argument.

(3) Illustrate the six principal uses that may be made of nouns and pronouns, omitting their use as subject of a sentence.

(4) Tell the use made of each noun in the following:

The day is done, and the darkness
Falls from the wings of Night,
As a feather is wafted downward
From an eagle in his flight.

(5) Explain and illustrate the three principal uses of the adjective.

(6) Write two sentences showing the various uses of the adverb.

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(7) Tell which words are adjectives and which adverbs in the following; tell also what each modifies.

Swing on, old pendulum of the earth,
Forever and forever,
Keeping the time of suns and stars,
The march that endeth never.
Long as you swing shall earth be glad,
And men be partly good and bad,
Long as you swing shall wrong come right,
As sure as morning follows night.
The days go wrong, the ages never,
Swing on, old pendulum, swing forever.

(8) Define a phrase, and construct five sentences each containing a phrase. Underscore the phrases, and tell how each is used.

(9) Mention the phrases in example 9, Art. 7, and tell what each phrase modifies.

(10) Define a clause, and construct a sentence that consists of two or more clauses.

(11) State the principal uses of the clause, and construct sentences to illustrate those uses.

(12) Mention the classes of connectives used in uniting clauses of unequal rank, and give five of each class.

(13) Define a simple sentence. Write a simple sentence that is (a) *declarative*; (b) *interrogative*; (c) *imperative*.

(14) Write in sentence form, with the best arrangement of parts, the sentential elements of example 2, Art. 18.

(15) Define the complex sentence, and give five examples.

(16) Write complex sentences as follows: (a) two, one of which has an adjective clause and the other an adverbial clause; (b) one, having a noun clause for its subject; (c) three, having connectives as follows: (a) a subordinating conjunction, (b) a conjunctive adverb, (c) a relative pronoun.

(17) Unite each of the following groups of separate statements into complex sentences:

(a) The shadow of the earth upon the moon is circular. Men have sailed around the earth. The earth is round like a ball.

(b) He was idle and careless. He lost his position. He was proved to be dishonest.

(c) The buds begin to swell. The birds come from the south. Spring has arrived. We may be certain of the fact.

(18) Define the compound sentence, and write two such sentences.

(19) What is meant in grammar by the *analysis* of a sentence?

(20) How are the following sentential elements indicated in diagram according to the plan explained in the Instruction Paper? (a) the subject; (b) the predicate; (c) the predicate noun; (d) the object noun or pronoun; (e) an adjective modifying directly.

(21) How are the following indicated in diagram?—(f) an adverbial modifier; (g) a connective; (h) a predicate adjective; (i) an adjective or an adverbial phrase; (j) a conjunction; (k) a conjunctive adverb or a relative pronoun; (l) an independent element.

(22) Analyze the following sentences:

(a) The old gentleman followed the visitor to the gate.

(b) Influence and respect are the courtesies paid by the world to personal worth and ability.

(23) Write a complex sentence of not less than twelve words, and analyze it by means of a diagram.

(24) Analyze:

And the night shall be filled with music,
And the cares that infest the day
Shall fold their tents, like the Arabs,
And as silently steal away.

(25) Analyze:

Richard, the Lion-Hearted, was imprisoned for a long time by the Sultan of Turkey.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 3.)

(1) By mapping, indicate the plan of the following sentences:

(a) This is the malt that lay in the house that Jack built.

(b) The earth has one moon, but the planet Jupiter has four such attendants.

(c) All the plays and poems that Shakespeare wrote contain only about fifteen thousand different words, and the Old Testament has five thousand six hundred and forty-two different words.

(2) Write and map sentences as follows: (a) a compound sentence with one subordinate clause modifier; (b) a complex sentence with two clause modifiers.

(3) Construct sentences answering to the following:

$$(a) \left. \begin{array}{c} + \\ \text{---} < \\ + \\ \text{---} < \end{array} \right\} = \text{---} = \qquad (b) = \text{---} \left\{ \begin{array}{c} + > \text{---} < \\ + \\ > \text{---} < \end{array} \right\} \text{---} =$$

(4) Write two simple sentences. Write and map (a) two complex sentences, the maps of which shall be unlike; (b) two compound sentences that shall each contain two or more subordinate clause modifiers.

(5) Analyze by mapping and by detailed diagram the following sentence:

Knowledge comes, but wisdom lingers, and I linger on the shore,
And the individual withers, and the world is more and more.

(6) Analyze and map example 2, Art. 23.

(7) Give the various classes of common nouns, and write sentences containing underscored examples of each class.

(8) Arrange in classes all the nouns that occur in the following quotation:

I haven't the least idea where Tom was born; I do not know even the time of his birth. His feline parents must have been neglectful of their obligation to provide for his helplessness, to watch over his youth, and to care for his training. Clearly, they were ignorant of that well known postulate of political economy that every child has a natural right to be born under favorable circumstances or not to be compelled to be born at all. I say this because one winter morning on my way to business Tom hailed me from the doubtful shelter of an old barn. His hail was plaintive and pitiful; it was a cry that told of hunger and cold, of suffering and neglect, and of a deep and firmly rooted dissatisfaction with existing conditions.

(9) Write sentences containing underscored nouns used as follows: (a) a sentence containing nouns that are the names of *things rational*, but no other nouns; (b) a sentence containing *verbal nouns*, and no others; (c) a sentence containing *abstract nouns that are not verbal*, and no others.

(10) Make a list of twenty collective nouns.

(11) Explain carefully why some nouns are called *abstract*; also, why some are called *rational*.

(12) In what sense are *verbal nouns* really *abstract*?

(13) Give examples of proper nouns used as common nouns.

(14) Explain fully what is meant by inflection, and give illustrations.

(15) Mention, and illustrate in sentences, the various inflections of nouns.

(16) Tell what parts of speech are inflected, and the special names given to their inflections.

(17) Give what is required in examples 4 and 5 of Art. 14.

(18) Give, and as far as possible illustrate, by examples not found in the Instruction Paper, the *general rule* and the *special rules* for pluralizing nouns.

(19) Explain the distinction that should be made in the use of the following pairs of words, and use them properly in sentences: (a) *gender—sex*; (b) *masculine—male*; (c) *feminine—female*.

(20) Explain and illustrate how gender is indicated: (a) by *form*; (b) by *use* or *context*.

(21) Give what is required in example 4, Art. 23.

(22) Define *case*, and explain how the word *declension* came to be used in grammar.

(23) Explain the distinction in use that should usually be made between the possessive case, and the phrase form with the preposition *of*; as, *John's hat*, *the hat of John*; *the ocean's tides*, *the tides of the ocean*.

(24) Mention, and illustrate in sentences, the principal functions of the nominative case.

(25) By means of diagrams, show the difference between a *factitive* objective and an *appositive* objective.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 4.)

(1) Analyze by diagram the following sentence:

He seemed a feeble, inoffensive old man, and they gave him much attention.

(2) Construct a table of the noun, showing its classes and subclasses, with illustrations.

(3) Parse the *nouns* in the following:

Know ye the land where the cypress and myrtle
Are emblems of deeds that are done in their clime?

(4) Write two sentences each containing underscored nouns that are independent by *pleonasm*.

(5) Explain the *adjunctive*, *appositive*, and *predicative* uses of the adjective. Illustrate each by words underscored in sentences.

(6) Give the divisions of adjectives with respect to *form*. Illustrate.

(7) How are compound adjectives classified with reference to the elements that compose them? Illustrate.

(8) Mention the classes of pronominal adjectives, and give examples.

(9) Write ten adjectives that do not admit of comparison.

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(10) Give what is required in examples 1 and 2, Art. 7.

(11) Define and illustrate: (a) the *positive degree* of an adjective; (b) the *comparative degree*; (c) the *superlative degree*.

(12) Give the rules for comparing adjectives, and illustrate each rule.

(13) Find ten adjectives of two syllables each that may be compared by the suffixes *er* and *est*.

(14) Compare five of the most commonly used adjectives of irregular comparison.

(15) State how adjectives are parsed, and illustrate by parsing the adjectives in the following sentence:

The way was long, the wind was cold,
The minstrel was infirm and old;
His withered cheek and tresses gray
Seemed to have known a better day.

(16) Answer the requirement made in the exercise, Art. 41, but do not give the explanation.

(17) Find suitable modifiers, not given in the Instruction Paper, of the adjective *careless*, as follows: (a) five *words*; (b) five *phrases*; (c) five *clauses*.

(18) Explain and illustrate what is meant by the *antecedent* of a pronoun.

(19) Mention the nominative singular and plural of all the *simple personal pronouns*.

(20) Analyze the following sentences by means of diagrams, and indicate which clauses are *restrictive* and which *coordinating*:

Our guide, who was very sick, remained behind at the inn until we returned.

The house that we bought was less valuable than that in which we formerly lived, which was very large.

(21) Construct a sentence containing a double relative, and analyze it by means of a diagram.

(22) Use, in sentences, five of the indefinite pronouns.

(23) Decline the pronouns *I* and *he*.

(24) State the respect in which the following definition is faulty: *A pronoun is a word used instead of a noun.*

(25) Mention and classify the pronouns in the following:

(a) Fling our doors wide. All, all, not one, but all;
Not only he, but by my mother's soul,
Whatever man lies wounded, friend or foe,
Shall enter if he will.

(b) Neither has aught that he can call his own,
Yet each has much that he would not lose.

GRAMMAR.

(PART 5.)

(1) Explain briefly and illustrate in what sense every verb expresses action of some kind.

(2) Arrange a series of ten verbs graded from *active* to *neuter*, and use as few of those given in the Instruction Paper, Art. 3, as possible.

(3) Write two sentences in each of which shall occur a verb used as in the sentences that are analyzed in Art. 4; put your sentences in diagram.

(4) Analyze, by means of diagram, example 11, Art. 4.

(5) Explain and illustrate the meaning of *transitive* and *intransitive* as applied to verbs.

(6) What are meant by the *active* and the *passive* forms of transitive verbs? Illustrate by examples.

(7) Write two sentences in each of which shall occur the following four elements: a *subject*, a *verb*, a *direct object*, and an *indirect object*. Change the sentences from the *active* to the *passive* construction.

(8) What inflections have verbs? Define *conjugation*.

(9) Define *mode*; name the modes; illustrate each by a sentence.

(10) Write five sentences containing verbs in the subjunctive mode.

(11) Explain, with illustrations, why the infinitive mode is so called.

(12) Which modes are determined by the use or purpose of the entire sentence or clause in which they occur? Which modes may be known from the use or form of the verb alone? Illustrate.

(13) How many forms are there for the infinitive of intransitive verbs? How many for transitive verbs? Illustrate.

(14) Show by means of illustrations what elements may be associated with the infinitive.

(15) What functions may the infinitive have? Give illustrations.

(16) Give what is required in example 10, Art. 23.

(17) Analyze the following sentence:

The poor old man, tired by his day's labor, thought that his own home was the most comfortable spot to be found in the world.

(18) Give, with illustrations, the various forms of *verbals*—*simple* and *compound*.

(19) Classify and explain the use of the verbals that occur in examples 4, 5, and 6, Art. 25.

(20) Define *tense*, and give the *primary* tenses, with examples.

(21) Give verb phrases as follows: (a) three that denote action indefinite with respect to time; (b) three that denote progressive action—present, past, and future; three that denote perfected or completed action—present, past, and future.

(22) Give verb phrases to illustrate the tenses of what is called the *potential* mode.

(23) Tell the exact function of each verbal element in the following sentences (a) *I should be going*. (b) *They have been seen*.

(24) Name the mode and the tense of each verb in example 4, Art. **36**.

(25) What time periods are covered by the three primary tenses? Give illustrations.

(26) Make a diagram showing the function of each element in a verb phrase in the present perfect progressive, indicative of the verb *sing*.

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GRAMMAR.

(PART 6.)

(1) Explain the extent to which the tense forms of the different modes are significant of time.

(2) What times are really denoted by the tense forms in the following sentences? Mention the tense of each verb.

I should be glad to have you come. Should he call, tell him that we are coming. Were I to go with him, I should not be here.

(3) Explain and illustrate the meaning of the following statement: "Finite verbs must agree with their subjects in number and person."

(4) Define and illustrate (a) a *regular* verb; (b) an *irregular* verb.

(5) Give the principal parts of *ring, sing, do, go, see, come, swim, drink, write, think*.

(6) Explain why the principal parts of verbs are important.

(7) Under what circumstances is a verb *redundant*? Give five examples, with principal parts.

(8) Explain what is meant by the *new conjugation*, and why it is so named.

(9) What is the difference between the *conjugation* of a verb and a *synopsis* of it?

(10) Give what is required in example 10, Art. 11.

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(11) Write a synopsis of *drink* in the first person singular of all the tenses of the indicative.

(12) Write a synopsis of *see* in the passive form of all the tenses of the indicative mode.

(13) Analyze by diagram the following sentence :

Do not let him leave before he has entirely finished his work for the day.

(14) Explain the difference in the meaning of *shall* and *will* in the first, from that of the same words in the second, of the following sentences :

I shall drown and nobody will help me.

I will drown and nobody shall help me.

(15) Analyze the following sentence and parse its verbs :

Cæsar said to me, "Darest thou, Cassius, now leap in with me into this angry flood, and swim to yonder point?"

(16) In the manner shown in Art. 15, analyze the following :

They were working. He should be punished. They might have been seen. (Do the work neatly.)

(17) As shown in Art. 17, parse example 7, Art. 18.

(18) Give sentences in which words that ordinarily are of the following parts of speech, are used as adverbs: (a) a noun; (b) an adjective; (c) a verb; (d) a preposition.

(19) Mention the classes, according to *use*, of adverbs, and define and illustrate each class.

(20) Write three sentences containing *modal* adverbs.

(21) Write two sentences containing *conjunctive* adverbs, and then two more sentences containing the same words used as *simple* adverbs.

(22) Mention the principal *responsives*, and explain the manner in which they are used.

(23) Describe the functions of the preposition; and, illustrating by examples, tell the various kinds of objects it may have.

(24) Explain the difference between a coordinating and a subordinating conjunction. Give the classes of the former, and examples of each class.

(25) Analyze the following sentences, but do not dismember them.

- (a) There in fancy comes my mother, as she used to years ago,
To survey her infant sleepers ere she left them till the dawn.
- (b) I can see her bending o'er me as I listen to the strain
That is played upon the shingles by the patter of the rain.

PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION.

(1) Define *punctuation* and give the divisions of the subject.

(2) Explain what is meant by *etymological* punctuation, and give ten examples illustrating different cases of this kind of punctuation.

(3) Make a clear distinction between phrases and clauses, and construct a sentence containing two or more of each of these elements.

(4) Explain why it will always be impossible to reduce punctuation to an exact science, such that, if different persons understand it, they will punctuate the same matter in the same way.

(5) Give three important general principles that influence punctuation.

(6) What is the probable origin of the mark of interrogation ? of the mark of exclamation ?

(7) Upon what three general principles do most uses of the comma depend ? Illustrate each.

(8) Arrange the following sentences so that no punctuation is required besides the mark at the end of each, and tell in which cases the sense is changed by the transposition :

(a) By all means, now, we should take advantage of our opportunity.

(b) Therefore, frankly, and without reservation, I shall tell you the story.

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2 PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION. § 20

(c) Really, was I, on that occasion, in trusting him so fully, making another serious blunder?

(d) Smiled, then, well pleased, the aged man.

(e) Impatiently, then, vultures, circling overhead, awaited their prey.

(9) Rearrange the following sentences so that two commas will be needed to punctuate each properly :

(a) When differently used, parenthetical elements generally require to be punctuated differently.

(b) After all, it is mind that does the most important work of the world.

(c) An expression is restrictive when it modifies in the manner of an ordinary adjective or adverb.

(d) With all his train of attendant planets and their satellites, the sun is a mere speck or mote in the abyss of space.

(e) Last year, during the month of June, we went, for the benefit of our health, fishing in the Adirondacks.

(10) Rearrange, if necessary, and punctuate the following sentences in such way that the meaning shall not be uncertain :

(a) The president said the schoolmaster is the greatest power for good in the country.

(b) He was really wise however foolish notwithstanding he may often have seemed.

(c) The days were very dark however clear though the skies always were.

(d) All that long cold arctic winter day was scarcely more endurable than the equally long cheerless night.

(e) In speaking of good judges of the moral quality of action very often confuse real good with mere policy.

(11) Quote (not from the Instruction Paper) or construct two sentences illustrating each of the following rules: rule IV, Art. 31; rule V, Art. 34; and rule VI, Art. 38.

(12) Transpose, if necessary, and properly punctuate the following, so that all ambiguity may be removed :

(a) The boy enlisted for the war influenced by a love for fighting which his father greatly disapproved.

(b) The boy influenced by an instinct for roving enlisted for the war which his father greatly disapproved.

(13) Punctuate the following correctly and refer to the rules governing, in each case, the punctuation:

- (a) Why this is all wrong no one can clearly explain.
- (b) Why this is all wrong he remarked speaking softly to himself.
- (c) Any man that expects all of his fellow men to be honest and just will be uniformly disappointed.
- (d) Wise in thought but always impulsive and foolish in action he never succeeded in his dealings with men.
- (e) Herodotus the father of history seems to have been a very credulous old gentleman for he retails in all seriousness and with manifest belief the most absurd stories and the merest myths.

(14) Illustrate by sentences properly punctuated each of the five cases under rule XIII, Art. 61.

(15) Punctuate the following in two ways, making it first an apology, and, again, a serious accusation:

I said that the gentleman was guilty of falsehood it is true and I am very sorry for it.

(16) Construct a sentence exemplifying rule XV, Art. 62; also a sentence exemplifying rule XV, Art. 64.

(17) Punctuate the following sentences and give the rules authorizing your punctuation:

- (a) Magellan having passed through the strait now called by his name continued his voyage until he had accomplished what at that time was regarded as a remarkable feat that of sailing entirely around the world.
- (b) Economy is no disgrace for it is better to live on a little than to outlive a great deal.
- (c) For the position to which he had been chosen he was equipped in the following important particulars he was in every respect truthful he was absolutely scrupulously honest he was possessed of a fine education and by long training and much travel he had perfected a fine strain of social qualities.

(18) Insert suitable marks of punctuation instead of the carets, and refer to the rules that guide you in doing so:

Even under the most favorable circumstances ^ he that is carefully and thoroughly prepared ^ is often likely to find examinations very formidable ^ for ^ in every question ^ there is an element of surprise and

4 PUNCTUATION AND CAPITALIZATION. § 20

suddenness that frequently unbalances ^ and often paralyzes ^ the mental faculties.

The most precious of all possessions is power over ourselves ^ power to withstand trial ^ to bear suffering ^ to front danger ^ power over pleasure and pain ^ power to follow our convictions ^ however resisted by menace and scorn ^ power of calm reliance in scenes of darkness and storm.

(19) Construct sentences that shall, by their punctuation, illustrate rule XXI and rule XXII, Arts. **73** and **75**.

(20) Punctuate the following :

(a) Macaulay in his celebrated essay on Lord Clive says Yet the victories of Cortez were gained over savages who had no letters who were ignorant of the use of metals who had not broken in a single animal to labor who wielded no better weapons than those which could be made out of sticks flints and fish-bones who regarded a horse-soldier as a monster half man and half beast who took a harquebusier for a sorcerer able to scatter the thunder and lightning of the skies.

(b) We find in the midst of a brilliant description by Macaulay the following striking passage A succession of revolutions a disorganized administration the natives pillaged yet the Company not enriched every fleet bringing back fortunate adventurers who were able to purchase manors and to build stately dwellings yet bringing back also alarming accounts of the financial prospects of the government war on the frontiers disaffection in the army the national character disgraced by excesses resembling those of Verres and Pizarro such was the spectacle that dismayed those who were conversant with Indian affairs.

(21) In accordance with Arts. **66** and **81**, write and punctuate a heading and salutation for a letter; that is, everything as far as the "body," or beginning.

(22) Give examples illustrating five different uses of the dash and say what rule applies to each case.

(23) Write and properly capitalize five titles of books, essays, or poems. Let each title consist of several words, as in the examples given in Arts. **158** and **159**.

(24) Copy the following, inserting appropriate capitals, marks of punctuation, and Italics:

(a) Sir Roger L'Estrange during the reigns of Charles II and James VII enjoyed great notoriety as an occasional political writer he is known also as a translator having produced versions of Esops fables Senecas morals Ciceros offices Erasmus's colloquies Quevedos visions and the works of Josephus.

(b) Horologe hōra hour legein to speak is from two Greek words signifying together that which tells the hour a sun dial a clock a time-piece.

(c) Abraham Lincoln the great emancipator was shot at Fords theater Washington D C Friday night April 14 1865.

(25) Quote or construct sentences containing elements that exemplify the following punctuation:

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LETTER WRITING.

(PART 1.)

(1) Write the following headings in proper form and position, punctuate them, and use capitals where necessary:

- (a) Lansing Mich July 10 1897
- (b) W va wheeling jan 23 1846
- (c) Ohio columbus Oct 3 1898 university of ohio
- (d) 312 E green st Jan 6 1877 kan Wichita
- (e) center co Pa Bellefonte 14 Aug 1896
- (f) feb 6 1895 bancroft house tex Austin

(2) (a) State the use of the postscript. (b) What messages should never be included in a postscript?

(3) State the two uses of the *nota bene*.

(4) Write the following addresses and salutations in their proper form, and punctuate and capitalize correctly:

(a) Jermon & Brown 1134 Market St Phila Pa Gentlemen Your favor of the 15th inst, etc

(b) Seth M Alvord esq president of the board of education San diego Cal dear sir permit me to, etc

(c) Mrs. Ellen E Franklin Logansport Ind Madam I beg to ask you, etc

(d) Mr. Alfred Bingham dear sir in reply to yours of recent date

(5) What rule is to be observed regarding the use of the suffixes *d*, *st*, *th* with the day of the month in the date of a letter?

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(6) State the general rules governing the punctuation and capitalization of the heading, introduction, conclusion, and superscription.

(7) Write a salutation and a complimentary close for a letter (*a*) to your father; (*b*) to an intimate friend; (*c*) to one with whom you are acquainted but slightly and to whom you address a letter of inquiry; (*d*) to a business firm; (*e*) to a Member of Congress; (*f*) to a Doctor of Divinity; (*g*) to a Governor of a State; (*h*) to a Colonel of an army.

(8) (*a*) Name the essential parts of a letter. (*b*) What does the introduction include? (*c*) What does the conclusion consist of?

(9) (*a*) What is the proper position of the address? (*b*) When should the address be placed at the end of the letter?

(10) (*a*) State the distinction between business and social letters. (*b*) What are official letters?

(11) In writing a letter applying for an important position, what kind and quality of material would you use? Give specific details as to paper, envelope, and ink.

(12) Write the following headings and introductions in their proper form; punctuate and capitalize them correctly:

(*a*) Montgomery Ala 13 Jan 1894 Mr J. E. Durstine
Phillipsburg center co pa my dear sir your welcome letter

(*b*) 1314 sherman Ave evanston Ill 1899 June 13 prof
Edson A Lorenz 430 Summit ave Toledo Ohio Sir may I
request you

(*c*) Bloomington Ill april 17 1898 honorable Wm E Mason
U S Senator washington D C sir I respectfully submit to you
the following

(13) Write the following conclusions in their proper form; punctuate and capitalize them correctly:

(*a*) Yours truly S W Ernst

(b) Yours very respectfully E W Robinson & Co per
M W H

(c) your obedient servant O E Holland

(d) awaiting an early answer I am yours very truly V. S
Higgins

(e) Trusting to hear from you again we remain very truly
yours the Saunders Machine co John W Calkins secretary.

(f) I am dear sir very respectfully your obedient servant
Emil Warden

(14) To whom do the following titles properly belong?
(a) Honorable; (b) Excellency; (c) Esquire; (d) Professor;
(e) Lady.

(15) What is the custom in regard to adding scholastic
degrees to one's own name?

(16) Write the following conclusions, which include the
addresses, in proper form:

(a) Your loving son Albert Orth (To) Mrs. Elizabeth
Orth Princeton N J

(b) Sincerely your friend Oliver Northrup (To) Samuel
Carpenter Esq. Memphis Tenn.

(c) Your obedient servant Cyrus E Gardner (To) Russell
A Alger secretary of war Washington D C

(17) Describe the process of folding (a) a letter sheet;
(b) a sheet of legal cap; (c) a note sheet.

(18) What distinction may be made in the use of the
titles *Mr.* and *Esq.*?

(19) (a) State briefly the abbreviations that may properly
be made in letter writing. (b) What kinds of abbreviation
should *not* be made in letter writing?

(20) Write the following superscriptions, or envelope
addresses:

(a) Mr. Orlando Cushman Clio Genesee co Mich

(b) E. H. Morris Esq 3431 Powelton Ave Philadel-
phia Pa

- (c) Mrs. John N Wright Hagerstown Md PO box 73
- (d) Prof S W Roberts Bangor Me General Delivery
- (e) Ellis H Frost M E 1407 Monadnock building Chicago Ill.

(f) A R Sadtler Esq care of Mr E N Pratt 113 Olive St Syracuse N Y

(g) The honorable Wm C Maybury M C Washington D C

(21) Give six of the leading events in the history of the United States postal service, with dates.

(22) Arrange the parts of the following letter in their proper positions, and punctuate:

1822 Woodward Ave Detroit Mich May 7 1894 Mr E F Lindbury 167 Spruce St Akron Ohio My dear Sir Please do me the honor to consider — — — I am Yours very truly Simon Ford.

(23) Arrange in proper position, and punctuate the parts of the following letter:

Office of the Kingston Ice Making Co Limited Kingston Jamaica West Indies May 25 1886 E T Skinkle Esq The Consolidated Ice Machine Co Chicago Ill U S A Dear Sir your favor of April 26th has been placed before my directors and I am instructed * * * * * Wishing your company every success which it has so fully merited I am Yours faithfully Wm A Paury Secretary and Manager.

(24) (a) What is the distinction between note paper and letter paper? (b) For what purposes are each used?

(25) (a) What precautions should be observed in the signature of a letter? (b) State briefly the chief points to be observed in the superscription, or envelope address.

LETTER WRITING.

(PART 2.)

(1) Write a letter to your friend Edward S. Bates, Atlantic City, N. J., introducing your friend John A. Atwood, who intends to make a visit to the resort.

(2) Write a letter of condolence, basing it on some actual event in your recollection, in which a relative or near friend has suffered a bereavement.

(3) (*a*) How is continuity secured in the construction of paragraphs? (*b*) What regulates the length of a paragraph?

(4) (*a*) By what qualities should the style of a business letter be characterized? (*b*) Explain fully the difference between the style of a social letter and that of a business letter.

(5) Write a letter and address an envelope to John Wiley and Sons, 53 East Tenth St., New York, ordering the following books: 6 Warren's "Projection Drawing," list price \$1.50; 20 Dana's "Elementary Mechanics," list \$1.50; 8 MacCord's "Kinematics," list \$5.00; 24 Wood's "Trigonometry," list \$1.00. Request the usual discount of 20 per cent.

(6) (*a*) Name the chief characteristics of a good sentence. (*b*) In what ways may a sentence be made obscure or ambiguous?

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(7) Write three sentences in the loose form and change them to the periodic form.

(8) In general, which kind of sentence is most suitable for letter writing (a) the long or the short? (b) the loose or the periodic? Give reasons.

(9) Write a letter to Mr. D. Atherton, Secretary of the Board of Trade, Scranton, Pa., introducing your friend James W. Orton, who is about to visit Scranton for the purpose of enlisting capital in a manufacturing enterprise. This is to be a purely business letter.

(10) What rules must one observe to attain purity of diction?

(11) Correct violations of purity in the following sentences:

- (a) He is in the swim with the rest of the élite.
- (b) The audience were enthused by his remarks.
- (c) The boy fired an apple at him.
- (d) Has any gent got on to this flim flam game?
- (e) He is very likely to get rattled.

(12) Write the opening paragraph of a letter to a friend whose letter you have neglected to answer promptly. Make a reference to your neglect and apologize for it. Write the heading and introduction.

(13) In the following sentences, point out the cause of ambiguity or obscurity, and reconstruct the sentences so that they shall be clear.

- (r) Black Lutes' silk waists, \$5.00 to \$7.50.
- (b) We only heard of two houses for rent.
- (c) The natives were nearly dressed alike.
- (d) He helped not only the needy poor but also gave liberally to the hospitals and other charitable institutions.
- (e) The farmer told his neighbor that his cattle were in his field.
- (f) Wanted, a tutor for a child, of religious disposition.

(*g*) "The story concludes with the righting of a cruel wrong, the just destruction of its author, and the happiness of those who have temporarily suffered through the machinations of the wicked."

(14) (*a*) What do you understand by precision in the use of words? (*b*) Write three sentences containing words not used in their exact meaning and give the words that should be used instead.

(15) Write a letter to A. S. Clemons & Co., Chicago, Ill., applying for a position as salesman or bookkeeper. State your experience and give references as to character and ability.

(16) Write a letter applying for some position that you feel qualified to fill and that you would like to obtain.

(17) (*a*) What do you understand by propriety in the use of words? (*b*) Give three examples of the proper and improper use of words not given in Art. 7.

(18) Write a letter of narrative, basing it on some event in your own experience, as, for example, a holiday visit or an excursion.

(19) Write a letter acknowledging an order for goods. Use fictitious firm names.

(20) Write a letter of description. Choose as a topic something with which you are familiar.

(21) Write a letter congratulating a friend on his recovery from serious illness.

LETTER WRITING.

(PART 8.)

(1) Write a letter enclosing a Chicago draft for \$240.00, to apply on your account.

(2) Write a letter to Harper & Bros., Franklin Square, New York, enclosing a post-office money order for \$4.00 in payment for one year's subscription to "Harper's Magazine." State that you wish the subscription to begin with a certain issue.

(3) Write a general letter of recommendation for a person that has been in your employ as a salesman, a book-keeper, or in some clerical situation.

(4) Write to the publisher of some periodical, requesting a change of address in the paper or magazine sent you. Give your present address.

(5) Write a letter to an employe that has been neglecting his duties through intemperance and dissipation. Tell him that you will be sorry to lose him, but that you can no longer endure his remissness, and that unless he reforms his mode of life you will be compelled to discharge him.

(6) Write the following formal notes: (*a*) An invitation for dinner. (*b*) An acceptance of this invitation. (*c*) Requesting permission to accompany a lady to the Academy of Music. (*d*) An invitation to a party. (*e*) A regret for (*d*), on account of sickness in the family.

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(7) Write a letter to John A. Richmond, calling his attention to his account, which is past due, and requesting payment.

(8) Write a letter to a debtor that has paid no attention to repeated requests for the money he owes you.

(9) Assume that you have opened a grocery store in a strange city. Write a circular letter soliciting the custom of those in your vicinity. Lay stress on your intention to deal fairly and please customers. Call attention to the excellence of your stock and your low prices.

(10) Write a letter to Johnson & Bevans, St. Louis, Mo., wholesale dealers and jobbers in hardware, introducing Mr. David S. Gearhart, who is going to add hardware and implements to his present stock. Refer to Mr. Gearhart's business ability, his previous success, and state the reasons for your confidence in him.

(11) Write a letter to some relative at home in answer to one you have just received.

(12) Write a letter accepting an invitation from a friend to spend a month in Washington. Refer to a former visit, and say when you will arrive.

(13) Write the following telegrams:

(a) To A. B. Sanford, Peoria, Ill., stating that you have missed connections at Indianapolis, and will arrive in Peoria on the 10.20 train

(b) To E. S. Williams, Wheeling, W. Va., stating that you will accept his offer on certain conditions, which are contained in a letter that will follow the message.

(c) To the proprietor of the Russell House, Detroit, Mich., asking him to reserve a good single room, north side if possible, from Friday morning.

(14) You are about to enter a medical school but are in doubt as to which of several will be the best for you to

LETTER WRITING.

(PART 2.)

Write a letter enclosing a Chicago draft for \$240 (10),
your account.

Write a letter to Harper & Bros., Franklin Square,
enclosing a post-office money order for \$4 (10) in
one year's subscription to Harper's Maga-
zine that you wish the subscription to begin with a

a general letter of recommendation for a per-
son in your employ as a salesman, a book-
keeper or clerical situation.

Write the publisher of some journal requesting
clippings in the paper or magazine sent you
and address.

Write to an employer who has been neglecting
his temperance obligation. Tell him
you can no longer
work, and that you will reform his mode
of living.

Following are three: (1) An invita-
tion to a lady to the
house of a party. (2) A
letter to a family.

Following the table page

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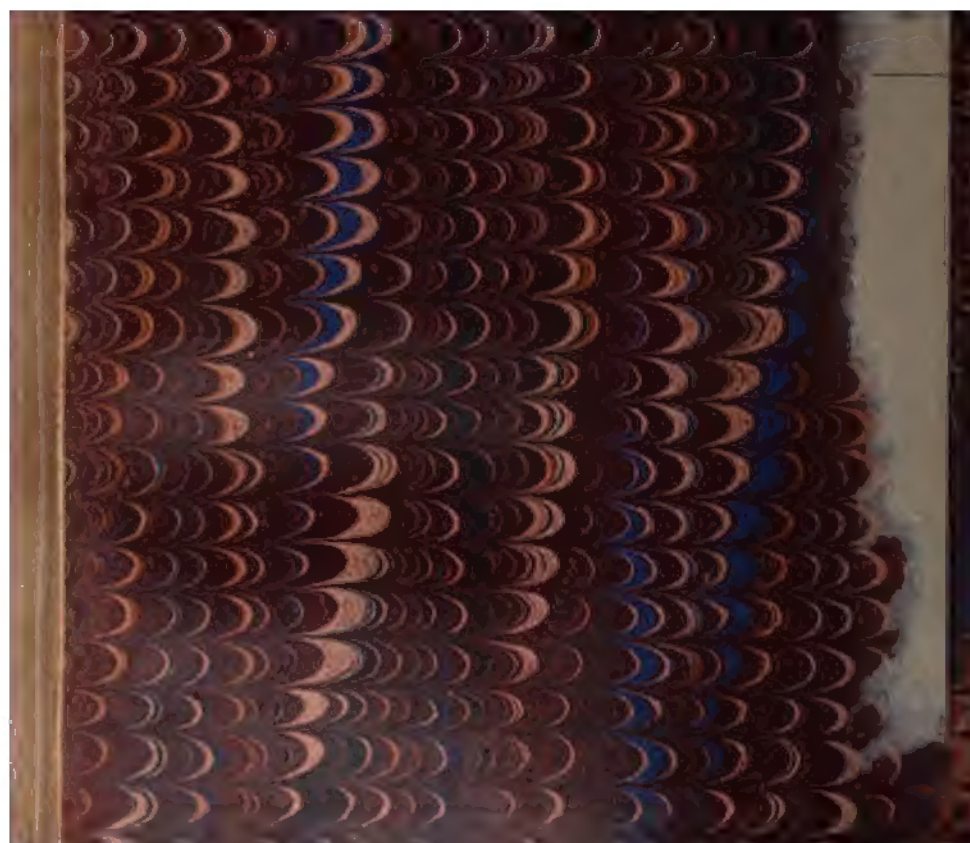
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